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Educational News and Editorial Comment

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EDUCATORS LOOK BEYOND THE WAR

WE ARE beginning to lift up our eyes and look beyond the immediate job of making schools serve the war effort to the task that lies ahead when the war is over. Educational journals will devote an increasing share of their space to three critical problems of post-war education. These are: (1) the place of youth in American society, (2) intergroup co-operation in the United States, and (3) international organization and world peace. In the following pages comment will be made on some of the things that are being said and done about these three problems.

Post-war youth problem Nothing has changed so much in the past ten years in America as has the status of youth. Ten years ago young people were an unnecessary segment of our population. Their work was not needed in a

glutted labor market. Their prospects were poor. As a group they had less basis for optimism about the future than any generation in our country's history. Today, to be young means to be on the center of the American stage. Our hopes for the future rest with the same young people, now soldiers and workers, for whom we had little use a decade ago. These young people are serving us well. The social and educational measures taken so late and often so halfheartedly during the depression years for the benefit of youth are paying dividends.

But what will the status of youth be ten years from now? Shall we have a youth problem again? If so, will our experience of the 1930's help us to deal with the problem? The writer would answer "Yes" to both of these questions. The principal reason for believing that our past experience with the care and education of youth during a period of severe unemployment will prove useful to us is that this ex-

perience has been fully and carefully analyzed and described by the American Youth Commission. Today some of the books published by the Commission may be collecting dust, but tomorrow they will be taken down from the shelves once more, as people again look for help with the youth problem. Perhaps the most useful of all the Commission's books will be its last one, which has just been published under the title *Post War Youth Employment*. Paul T. David wrote this book, as well as its companion piece, *Barriers to Youth Employment*. Mr. David starts his concluding chapter: "If the basic data of this book are accurate and the analysis is sound, it is perfectly clear that we shall have a 'youth problem' in the post-war period."

He points out that the proportion of young people to older people in the population will continue to decrease, and he predicts a change in our attitudes toward children and young people:

As pointed out in an earlier chapter, in recent years we have had a larger number of youth sixteen to twenty-five than at any previous time in the history of the country. The number will begin to decline almost immediately because of the downturn in the total number of births which took place in the middle years of the 1920's. Notwithstanding the record number of births in the single year 1942, the total number of youth in this country may never again be as large as it is now. War casualties will strike hardest at the present generation of youth, and will undoubtedly be severe before we win through this period of total war.

When we count our losses at the end of the war and consider the narrowing base of our population pyramid as we confront the future, a permanent change in our attitudes toward children and young people should be the least of the adjustments we are willing to make. . . .

A spirit of altruism and humanity would seem sufficient to bring public acceptance for the type of program which has been advocated by the American Youth Commission and other similar qualified groups. For the present volume, so filled with data and with its charts of long-term trends, the final outcome seems to be that any enlightened consideration of national self-interest will bring us eventually to the same conclusions.

Young people will not be neglected in the days ahead because they are so greatly outnumbered by those older. On the contrary, unless we lose all capacity for rational thought, we shall value them more highly for that very reason.

Perhaps by the time these lines are published, the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators will have published a report entitled *Education for All American Youth*. This report will propose a post-war educational program that is expected to solve the coming youth problem. Since the Educational Policies Commission opposed the recommendations of the American Youth Commission concerning the Civilian Conservation Corps and the National Youth Administration, we shall look with great interest for the Policies Commission's constructive proposals of ways to meet the problem of post-war youth employment.

*Education
for inter-
group co-
operation*

In wartime the aggressive feelings of people tend to be directed outward toward an external enemy. In the post-war period, when it will no longer be fashionable to hate Japanese and Germans, there is danger that Americans will fall to hating one another. Even now, during a time of national unity, we have an alarming amount of internal tension and hostility. There is hatred of the Negro, as evidenced by riots in Detroit and New York. There is hatred of the Jew, as indicated by anti-Semitic outbreaks in Boston. There is hatred of loyal Japanese-Americans, some of it sponsored by a committee of the California State Legislature.

War stimulates hate at the same time that it provides an external outlet for the violent emotions aroused. We might hope that peace will bring a lessening of tension and hatred in our people, if we did not face the prospect of severe unemployment and economic dislocation following the war. Actually the danger is great that minority groups of all kinds will be subjected to injustice. The Negro and the Jew will be the principal victims, but all distinct minority groups will be targets for hostility.

Offering a constructive solution to the problem and giving ground for optimism is the slow but sure development of a truly American culture, which binds all Americans together and makes them overlook differences of color, origin, and religion. The

names of the players on high-school and college football teams are a blend of everything European. School and college faculty rosters show similar variety. Artists and musicians are honored regardless of race or color. Gradually the names of leading businessmen come to represent all our ethnic groups. The time approaches when someone besides a white Protestant may aspire to the White House.

To construct a common American culture and to lessen hatred and group prejudice in America, we have to rely chiefly on the schools. An educational program must be based on an assumption about the nature of the culture toward which America is moving. The assumption which the writer believes most likely to square with future facts is that we are moving away from an Anglo-Saxon culture to a definitely American culture. The new American culture will draw from all of Europe and will no longer depend so exclusively on English literature and English history as it has in the past. Children whose forefathers came from central and southern Europe will learn the traditions and the literature of their ancestors in American schools. The essential thing about the new American culture will be its dependence on the American past and present. The proud lines of "Ballad for Americans" express the new spirit: Our country's strong; our country's young! And the greatest songs are still unsung.

Fortunately the schools have been creating this new culture for a good

while and have been working intensively for the past decade. Teachers of English have taken the lead. Educators who have not followed recent developments in this field will be surprised to find world literature replacing English literature and will be delighted with the new anthologies of American prose and poetry. The *English Journal* carries numerous articles reporting successful experiments in teaching the literature of our evolving American culture.

We know that education is effective against racial and religious prejudice. There is a good chance that education will win against the forces of hatred in the post-war world. A leading organization in the fight against intolerance is the National Conference of Christians and Jews, now sixteen years old. This agency announces the annual observance of Brotherhood Week, February 20-26, 1944, with the theme "Brotherhood or Chaos—History Shall Not Repeat Itself." Three thousand communities participated in the 1943 observance, with schools and colleges taking a conspicuous part.

The October, 1943, issue of the *California Journal of Secondary Education* presents a symposium on "Education for California's Minority Groups." The articles in the symposium deal with what California is doing and should be doing in behalf of the Negro, the Mexican, and the Chinese children in her schools. Articles cover such topics as the following: how San Francisco is taking care of

the Chinese youths in the junior high school which serves Chinatown; the viewpoint that Oakland is taking toward the education of its rapidly growing Negro population; an account of the activities of a Negro club in the Bakersfield Junior College; a discussion of the policy that Los Angeles County has adopted with regard to the education of Mexican boys and girls; a report on Los Angeles City's new program of teaching Spanish in every grade of the public schools. No doubt the editors and authors of this symposium had uneasy thoughts of the one minority group that is not mentioned—the Japanese-Americans who were driven from their homes in California.

In the *Social Studies* for November, 1943, Mildred Williams and W. L. Van Loan describe a program of "Education for Racial Equality" which they developed in the Roosevelt Junior High School of Eugene, Oregon. They organized a comprehensive unit on "Races and Nationalities in the United States," aimed at giving scientific information and at encouraging in pupils a desire to include all the people of the United States in our democratic way of living. The usefulness of this report is enhanced by the inclusion of an extensive bibliography, together with lists of motion pictures and recordings suitable for use with the unit.

An excellent brief discussion of *The Races of Mankind* has been written by Professor Ruth Benedict and Dr.

Gene Weltfish, of Columbia University, and published as Number 85 of the Public Affairs Pamphlets. In addition to giving scientific answers to many common questions about race, the pamphlet summarizes some of the things that are being done in this country to eliminate race prejudice and encourage intergroup co-operation. The authors declare that "freedom from fear is the way to cure race prejudice"; for, as they say: "Conflict grows fat on fear. And the slogans against 'inferior races' lead us to pick on them as scapegoats. We pin on them the reason for all our fears."

Education for world citizenship There is a remarkable degree of agreement among leaders in education on the desirability of teaching about problems of international affairs and world peace in the schools. Several responsible bodies of educators have gone further and recommended that attitudes favorable to American participation in a world organization be fostered by teachers. The Educational Policies Commission has made such a recommendation. Recently the Post-war World Committee of the Catholic Association for International Peace (1312 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C.) has issued two pamphlets favoring the immediate formation of a world organization. These pamphlets, entitled *Transition from War to Peace* and *A Peace Agenda for the United Nations*, both take the position that

the hope of the political future of the world lies in a world federation.

The Universities Committee on Post-war International Problems (40 Mount Vernon Street, Boston, Massachusetts), in co-operation with the World Peace Foundation, has prepared an analysis of the problem of *Education and World Peace*. The work of preparing the analysis was done by a group of advanced students and faculty members of the Harvard Graduate School of Education. They state the following "Assumptions."

1. There should be established a *permanent organization of nations*, not limited to a single continent or hemisphere, which will have for its primary function the maintenance of secure and lasting peace, by any means found necessary for that purpose.

2. Such an organization cannot be taken for granted as a result of war conditions, nor as a result of the situation which will obtain at or after the peace; *its establishment will depend on attitudes, states of mind, and desires, in peoples and in governments, favorable to its creation.*

3. A world organization, when established, will depend, if it is to be effective for a peace which serves freedom and the enlargement of human opportunity, upon *the continued development of public interest* in its aims and functions.

4. Since the required attitudes, conceptions, and interest do not yet exist to the extent necessary, *it is desirable to consider now the means by which they may be formed, or more widely diffused, and more certainly perpetuated.*

These four premises concern education in its bearing on the creation and operation of a world organization to serve peace as a condition favorable to human development. When education is viewed as a means of

direct service to the peoples of the world, two additional premises are necessary:

5. A world organization which is not only to serve for the prevention of war but also to contribute to "the improvement of man's estate" must include a branch or agency devoted to education.

6. Favorable public attention to this specific feature of an organization for world peace must be aroused and maintained.

Two main aims for education appear in the assumptions stated above. The first is to gain understanding and support for an international organization. The second aim is to make education an important function of that organization. The first aim calls for the development of an effective public conviction that world organization is desirable. If the success of an international organization for peace depends on attitudes and states of mind, then the problem of peace becomes a problem for education in its broadest sense. The ideas, beliefs, interests, and loyalties favorable to an international organization must be identified, stimulated, and brought effectively into play.

For teachers who plan to deal with the topic of world organization, there is a new resource unit in the "Problems in American Life" series sponsored by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals and the National Council for the Social Studies. Entitled *International Organization after the War*, this booklet was written by Max and Edna Lerner and Herbert J. Abraham.

Recently the Shaker Heights (Ohio) public schools co-operated with the Shaker Heights Community Council and the Peoples Peace Committee of Cleveland in holding a series of discussion meetings on problems of war and peace. Superintendent A. K. Loomis of the Shaker Heights schools

was active in organizing the series. There were thirty-four small group meetings enrolling about nine hundred people, two-thirds of them high-school pupils, and two large community meetings.

A step toward international co-operation in education was taken last September when the First Conference of Ministers and Directors of Education of the American Republics assembled in Panama for the purpose of discussing problems of common interest. One of the concrete proposals adopted by the conference was that a contest should be conducted under the auspices of the Pan American Union to secure a secondary-school textbook on the history of the Americas which would be acceptable to all the republics and which they might consider for official use. The conference also considered and gave preliminary approval to the recently established Inter-American University in Panama City.

Teachers who are interested in the study of the Americas will find most useful a bulletin of the United States Office of Education (Bulletin No. 2, 1943) entitled *Inter-American Education: A Curriculum Guide*. Prepared by Effie G. Bathurst and Helen K. Mackintosh, the bulletin draws on the work of thirty Inter-American Education Demonstration Centers, which have been developing instructional materials since 1942. This pamphlet is sold by the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D.C., at fifteen cents a copy.

PROS AND CONS OF ACCELERATION

SCHOOLS and colleges are commencing to evaluate their experience with acceleration of students. Edwin S. Burdell, director of Cooper Union, declares that accelerated programs should be abandoned by engineering colleges as soon as the war emergency is over. The *New York Sun* published the following account of an interview with Dr. Burdell.

According to Dr. Burdell, "acceleration is a necessary wartime evil, not a modern improvement, and should be abolished as soon as possible." He declared that the acceleration has been too rapid and the constant pressure of the year-round schedule has had "a stultifying effect on both teacher and pupil," adding that adequate periods of change of activity and environment are badly needed.

"Under present conditions, the teacher does not have the time necessary to organize new material and to keep up with the latest developments in the field," said the director. "He suffers inevitably from a staleness which permeates the entire staff and reduces educational processes to drills and exercises. The inspiration of vigorous teaching just is not there.

"Three months' 'vacation' may seem too much to a businessman whose idea of a holiday is a hunting or fishing trip, or a prolonged period on the golf links. Actually the so-called 'vacation' is, more likely than not, devoted to catching up on the professional literature in the field, planning new or revising old courses, research in libraries or laboratories, refresher visits to industry, and the like.

"The current elimination of this uninterrupted period away from class duties threatens not only the health and freshness of the teacher, but threatens the standards of instruction which are of equal concern to college authorities.

"As for students, their rate of absorption is noticeably less under the accelerated program. It has become necessary to repeat and repeat and repeat in order to get across the fundamental principles of each course. Teachers have been forced to eliminate much of their detailed illustrative material, and the students hit only the high spots."

On the other hand, Dean Clarence H. Faust, of the College of the University of Chicago, declares that accelerated programs should be retained. On the University of Chicago Round Table of December 5, Dean Faust said that a specific good effect of the war on education is the speeding-up of the educational process. War-time education has eliminated the long summer vacation that was common to most institutions of higher learning. He declared that there is no reason for returning to such an obvious waste.

A careful investigation of acceleration in high school and college is being conducted by Professor S. L. Pressey, of Ohio State University. In a progress report on this study, published in the *High School Journal* for October, 1943, Professor Pressey says that blanket conclusions as to success or failure of acceleration are not justified by the facts. Some of his tentative conclusions follow.

Data to date indicate that students, at least for relatively short periods, can handle accelerated programs so far as academic standing is concerned, but often at a questionable cost as regards health, and time for reading, recreation, and participation in activities. Hence it is especially important now that frequent check be made on all such outcomes. . . .

The data in both this study and practically all other studies bearing on the matter emphasize the great range of individual differences in ability and capacity for work. In most colleges, load has been held too closely to the average. Opportunity for the able student to take work in proportion to his ability (if his plans with respect to activities and earning make this feasible) is desirable. This will be especially needed after the war. Much desirable acceleration may thus be brought about.

The writer's judgment is that acceleration is largely a result of social demands and that, when these demands disappear, acceleration will disappear with them. Only for a minority of high-school and college students, those who are planning on a long period of training in professional or graduate schools, is acceleration at the high-school and college level desirable.

THE SCHOOL AND JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

THE war-engendered problem of juvenile delinquency has reached its peak in public attention. Even the United States Senate has recognized the problem by creating a special subcommittee, under Senator Pepper, on wartime health and education. Educational journals have been full of the problem for some time, and educators are certainly doing their share to cope with it. The procedures for dealing with the problem are simple and obvious. The only difficulty is that they demand, from a depleted corps of teachers and youth leaders, much hard work and a great deal of time.

"Is Delinquency the School's Busi-

ness?" asks Adele Franklin in the October, 1943, issue of *Progressive Education*. She reports on the development of two "All-Day Neighborhood Schools" in New York City. Six "group teachers" were attached to each of two elementary schools, one in Harlem and one in Chelsea, to help the regular teachers modify the school program and to supervise after-school recreation. In the November issue of *Progressive Education* Alice V. Keliher reports on the problem behavior that may be expected in children when their mothers are at work. She says that the schools must provide food, rest, and recreation for such children.

Gradually the elementary schools are learning how to set up "extended school services" with the aid of federal funds. The number of school systems which care for children of working mothers before and after regular school hours is still small, and there are many difficulties in the way. Parents have been loath to pay the relatively small charge that is made. There are difficulties in getting service from school janitors after school hours. It is hard to find teachers who have a flair for this kind of work. A helpful description of methods used to inform parents and the public about this type of program is given in *Education for Victory* for December 15, 1943.

Extending school services to cover more of the waking hours of boys and girls who do not have adequate parental supervision is an attack on juvenile delinquency at the elementary-school level, but the more sen-

sational delinquency of adolescent boys and girls cannot be stopped in this way. The writer has recently read a great many articles on juvenile delinquency, and he finds the same notes running through all of them: young people have too much money to spend; their elders are setting them a bad example; school teachers, recreation workers, and other youth group leaders are too busy to do their job as well as it should be done.

The December, 1943, issue of *New York State Education* is devoted almost entirely to the problem of juvenile delinquency. One of the articles, by Donald W. Cohen, chief child-guidance psychiatrist of the New York State Department of Mental Hygiene, discusses "The Mental Hygiene Approach to the Juvenile Delinquency Problem." The mental-hygiene approach, in brief, is to help boys and girls find appreciation, security, and success in behaving properly. Two juvenile-court judges cast their votes for the mental-hygiene approach in recent magazine articles: Judge Philip B. Gilliam, of Denver, in the November issue of *Educational Leadership*, and Judge Paul W. Alexander, of Toledo, in the November *Educational Forum*. Judge Alexander's much-quoted article takes the ironic position that much delinquency is taught in the elementary and secondary schools by the teachers themselves. They teach delinquency by a number of simple and time-tested techniques, such as calling children names and ridiculing them; failing to provide op-

portunities for friendships, self-expression, recreation, and adventure; and failing to recognize behavior problems in their incipient stages.

Two publications of the United States Children's Bureau are useful to educators wishing to understand the present problem of juvenile delinquency and to take appropriate measures in their own communities. These are publications 300 and 301, entitled *Understanding Juvenile Delinquency* and *Controlling Juvenile Delinquency*, and they may be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D.C., at ten cents each.

SHALL WE HAVE UNIVERSAL MILITARY SERVICE?

THE *New York Sun*, on December 1, 1943, came out editorially in favor of post-war compulsory military training for youth. A bill calling for a year of military service by boys is now pending in Congress. In the name of realism, many will favor this bill, and there is real prospect of its passing. The November, 1943, issue of *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City* contains a report by Max Newfield, chairman of the Summer, 1943, Workshop on Post-war Planning, a group of New York City teachers. This report predicts a "new synthesis of the arts of peace and war in the school curriculum" and continues:

It is more than likely that a period of compulsory military training for all boys will be

a fixture in the life of the ensuing generation. Preparation for this experience, as well as assimilation of it into the normal pattern of educational and social living, will devolve in no small measure upon the schools. It becomes both an obligation and a necessity for school men to reorientate themselves, so that they retain contact with the realities of the post-war era.

Boys in the City College of New York voted two to one in favor of post-war compulsory military training. The *New York Sun* interprets this change as a conversion due to the "realism of war" on the part of a group of students who before the war were enthusiastically committed to pacifism. High-school boys are less enthusiastic about military service, according to a poll taken by the Institute of Student Opinion (sponsored by the magazine *Scholastic*). About half of the boys said they favored such service, and 45 per cent objected to it.

The prospect of universal military service after the war is one for educators to think about. The high schools and colleges would have to make a major readjustment to such a state of affairs. In effect, large numbers of boys would exchange a year of high school or college for a year of military service. Many boys would terminate their education a year or two earlier than otherwise. Which is better for a boy in post-war America, a year of military service or another year of schooling? Educators should make themselves heard on this question.

To the writer it is not clear, that universal military service is compatible with our declared intention of

working for a general disarmament after the war. However, some educators now assume that the United States will maintain a vast military machine after the war. One of these is Professor Arthur B. Moehlman, of the University of Michigan. Writing in the *Nation's Schools* for December, 1943, Professor Moehlman proposes a program of "Summertime Universal Military Training" as a means of introducing universal service without disrupting the present educational scheme. He suggests that every boy undergo four summers of military training, from the eleventh through the fourteenth grade of school, or from the ages of approximately seventeen through twenty. He does not indicate how this program would be made to fit the large proportion of boys who drop out of school before they are seventeen.

THE C.I.O. DEVELOPS AN EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

OF SPECIAL interest to high-school administrators and teachers of social science is the news that the Congress of Industrial Organizations is going in for political education as a basis for political action. A Department of Research and Education has been established, with J. Raymond Walsh as director. From now on, many high-school pupils with relatives in the C.I.O. will appear in school with pamphlets published by this department. Teachers will be especially interested in a recent pamphlet entitled *Political Primer for All Ameri-*

cans (C.I.O. Publication No. 93). This pamphlet gives some of the basic facts of local community politics and should be very useful in studies of local government and politics.

THE SHAPE OF THINGS TO COME

A FIRST glimpse of post-war educational change may be afforded by the new program of the New York State Board of Regents, presented to Governor Dewey a few weeks ago. The principal feature of the program is a large expansion of state-supported post-secondary education. It is proposed to provide free post-secondary education for one-third of the high-school graduates each year. Since New York has no state university, the Regents suggest an expansion of the present system of Regents' scholarships so that 10 per cent of the high-school graduates may receive scholarships of \$350 a year for four years to attend colleges of their own choosing within the state. Another 20 per cent of high-school graduates would be given free training in the proposed new state-supported institutes of applied arts and sciences. These institutes would offer programs similar to the semiprofessional courses offered in many junior colleges. They would give opportunity for specialization in such areas as draftsmanship, electrical technology, store operation, dietetics, radio technology, hospital occupations, construction, automotive occupations, aviation, photographic and optical

work, laboratory technology, graphic arts, transportation, communication, and electronics.

If the state legislature approves these proposals, we shall see in the Empire State a pattern of post-secondary education that exemplifies three principles now generally agreed upon by educators: (1) There should be more scholarship aid as a means of increasing educational opportunity. (2) There should be an expansion of vocational education at the junior-college level. (3) There should be greater differentiation of educational offerings at the post-secondary level, with the typical liberal-arts college as only one of several types of higher institutions.

WHAT'S WRONG WITH AGRICULTURE IN HIGH SCHOOL?

URBAN educators are accustomed to assume that the teaching of agriculture is a highly successful part of the program of the ordinary rural high school. To hear that the high-school agricultural program is chaotic and that its future is uncertain will surprise them. Yet these are the claims of Professors Herbert McNee Hamlin and Charles Wilson Sanford, of the University of Illinois, in a pamphlet entitled *The Place of Agriculture in the Secondary School Program* (University High School Series, No. 2. University of Illinois Bulletin, Vol. XLI, No. 12). These two men write:

It was largely an historical accident that the federal funds for agricultural education came to be used primarily for teaching high-

school pupils. When federal funds first became available, farm boys were beginning to come into the high schools in increasing numbers, and it was easy to organize them into classes in agriculture. It was not customary at the time for farm boys to continue their education past the high-school period. Few conceived that farmers would ever return to school after reaching maturity. Consequently, the funds first made available for agricultural education were spent, for the most part, in the high schools. In many schools, the traditional use of these funds persists.

The secondary schools, the authors believe, should offer more adult education in agriculture. The high-school courses should be planned more carefully and should be limited to pupils who have had the benefit of vocational guidance before they are enrolled in these courses:

Farming is not the only agricultural occupation in which high-school pupils should become interested. Teachers of vocational agriculture can find plenty of work in their communities without teaching detailed and highly technical courses in agriculture to boys who have no interest in agriculture and no intention to engage in an agricultural occupation. Thorough vocational and educational guidance should precede and accompany specialization in agriculture. The rather disorganized set of courses in vocational agriculture now available can be organized into one of the most closely knit sequences in the high-school curriculum. Well-taught courses in agriculture, constituting not more than one-fourth of the work completed in the high school, contribute toward and do not detract from successful college work. The emphasis in agricultural education is rapidly being taken away from its high-school phases and is being placed upon work with persons past high-school age, who greatly outnumber the high-school group.

ANNOUNCEMENT OF WARTIME CONFERENCES

THE Department of Education of the University of Chicago will maintain headquarters at the Chicago and Kansas City regional conferences of the American Association of School Administrators. Inasmuch as wartime conditions made it impossible for the Association to issue the call for its annual convention in 1944, the Executive Secretary of the Association announced last November that arrangements had been made for a series of smaller assemblies, designated "Wartime Conferences on Education," so distributed geographically that all members of the Association would have access to one of the conferences. The Seattle conference was held in January, and the one in Atlanta was called for February 15-17. The remaining conferences are scheduled for New York City, February 22-24; Chicago, from February 28 to March 1; and Kansas City, March 8-10.

The University of Chicago headquarters at the Chicago conference will be located in the Palmer House; at Kansas City, in the Hotel Muehlebach. Alumni and former students in attendance at these conferences are cordially invited to visit the headquarters, and particularly to come for tea on Tuesday, February 29, in Chicago, and Thursday, March 9, in Kansas City, from four to six o'clock.

ROBERT J. HAVIGHURST

HERE AND THERE AMONG THE HIGH SCHOOLS

THE three examples of new enterprises selected for presentation in this issue include the report of a state-wide effort to stimulate follow-up studies of former students among the high schools of Michigan, a description of the wartime activities of school clubs in a secondary school in New York, and the announcement of an industrial and business health program in a school in California.

Handbook for follow-up studies The staff of the Michigan Study of the Secondary School Curriculum has published Number 1 of the newly inaugurated series "Leads to Better Secondary Schools in Michigan." The present bulletin, *Follow-up of Secondary School Students*, is designed as a handbook and guide for making studies of the graduates and drop-outs of local schools.

Based on an extensive review of reports and writings on follow-up procedures, the bulletin first lists twelve important steps in making a study of former high-school pupils and points out the relationships among the steps which need to be considered in formulating the plan for such an investigation. Subsequent sections of the bulletin present detailed directions for initiating and carrying through each of the twelve steps listed and informative descriptions of how twelve schools have used the results of such studies. An annotated list of thirty articles, bulletins, and books provides

a reference guide to different types of follow-up studies. Five sample forms of questionnaires and interview schedules are suggestive both as to the types of information asked for and the format of the instruments themselves. This bulletin may be purchased for twenty-five cents from the Michigan Study of the Secondary School Curriculum, Capitol Building, Lansing, Michigan.

The two succeeding numbers of this series have been announced: Number 2, *Local Pre-school Conferences*, which is described as a handbook for helping schools to conduct preschool workshops; and Number 3, *Youth Learns To Assume Responsibility*, which presents a series of reports telling how classroom teachers of Michigan are endeavoring to teach youth to assume responsibility.

School club program in wartime Principal Harold Davey, of the Griffith Institute and Central School at Springville, New York, has sent to the editors a description of the reorganization of the school-club program initiated last year as a means of increasing the school's contribution to the war effort. Early in the year the school's student-government body appointed a committee to study the problem of directing club activities toward the objective of meeting the nation's war needs. The following statement of changes in club procedures describes the redirection of club interests on the part of junior and senior high school pupils.

The Fine Arts Club devoted its energies to learning to read blue-prints, many of the sixteen-year-olds who planned to secure employment in the following year participating in this activity. The Photography Club, which is regularly sponsored by the science department, devoted the year to the study of aerial photography in co-operation with the Signal Corps. The Athletic Club became the Military Weapons Club for the study of the kinds of weapons used in warfare. An Aeroplane Spotters Club was organized to study the identifying marks of different types of airplanes, using flash cards, maps, movies, and mannikins as aids. Two Machine-Shop Clubs were organized: one for boys who were not enrolled in industrial-arts courses, the other for girls who expect to seek employment in factories. A First-Aid Club, under the direction of the school nurse, followed the course prescribed by the Red Cross outline and supplemented the work being done in the civil defense courses offered for the benefit of high-school pupils serving as messengers or air-raid wardens. A Child-Care Club was established to train girls who volunteered for service in homes of war mothers. The Publications Club, with the co-operation of the National Honor Society, organized and directed the drives for the Red Cross and for the sale of war bonds and stamps. Instruction in "how to work on a farm" was provided during the club period for pupils enlisting as farm helpers during the summer va-

cation. An Athletic Council, organized to promote physical fitness, succeeded in enlisting ten times the usual number of participants in the program of intramural sports.

Industrial health program The November, 1943, issue of *Curriculum Digest*, publication of the San Diego (California) public schools, announces the inauguration of a new program of health training for students at the San Diego Vocational High School and Junior College. The new program is designed to maintain physical efficiency as a vocational as well as a personal asset. Under the guidance of Dr. G. G. Wetherill, a well-qualified nurse supervises the training program and instructs the students concerning methods of avoiding injury and maintaining good health in various industrial and business enterprises. The plan of instruction includes individual counseling on health problems; health services, such as first aid, visual and hearing tests, and immunization; lectures by doctors, nurses, and other specialists; special instructions pertaining to health and safety problems within the school; and informative reading materials relating to health.

Through conferences with instructors of vocational courses, the supervisor of the health training program is developing integrating curriculum materials. The major objective of the program is to develop healthy and safe workers for business and industry.

WHO'S WHO FOR FEBRUARY

Authors of news notes and articles by ROBERT J. HAVIG-

HURST, professor of education and secretary of the Committee on Human Development at the University of Chicago. CHARLES H. JUDD, Charles F. Grey distinguished service professor emeritus of education and formerly chairman of the Department of Education at the University of Chicago, discusses the implications for curriculum makers and textbook publishers of the recent preparation by a New York State legislative committee of a textbook on industrial and labor relations. F. H. FINCH, assistant professor of education at the University of Illinois, cites evidence to disprove the common assumption that high-school pupils of today are inferior to those of an earlier period and suggests possible causes for the gains in ability which have taken place among high-school pupils in the past two decades. EDWIN A. JUCKETT, supervising principal of Central School District 1, Hyde Park, New York, maintains that, for the complete development of the child, co-operation between home and school is necessary and shows ways in which such co-operation may function. LOUIS FOLEY, professor of English at Western Michigan College of Education, Kalamazoo, Michigan, points out fallacies of many of the arguments that have been advanced for the retention of Latin in the high-school curriculum and pre-

sents other arguments that he considers legitimate. The selected references on the subject fields have been prepared by DORA V. SMITH, professor of education at the University of Minnesota; ROBERT E. KEOHANE, instructor in the social sciences and adviser in the College at the University of Chicago; EDITH P. PARKER, associate professor of the teaching of geography at the University of Chicago; WILBUR L. BEAUCHAMP, associate professor of the teaching of science and chief of science radio instruction in the Naval Training School at the University of Chicago, and JANE BLAIR, research assistant in the Records Office of the Laboratory Schools at the same institution; G. E. HAWKINS, chairman of the Department of Mathematics at Lyons Township High School and Junior College, La Grange, Illinois; FRANCIS F. POWERS, dean of the College of Education at the University of Washington.

Reviewers of books JAMES W. REYNOLDS, dean of Fort Smith Junior College, Fort Smith, Arkansas. G. T. BUSWELL, professor of educational psychology at the University of Chicago. PAUL B. DIEDERICH, assistant professor of education and examiner in the Office of the University Examiner at the University of Chicago. HARRIET E. HENDERSHOT, head of the commercial department and counselor of girls at the Argo Community High School, Argo, Illinois.

THE UNIQUE ORIGIN OF A TEXTBOOK

CHARLES H. JUDD

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THERE is something new in the world. It is a textbook for high schools prepared and published by a committee of a state legislature. Not only is it remarkable that a school-book should issue from such a source, but what is even more impressive is that the book deals with one of those delicate subjects which teachers have been hesitant about injecting into the curriculum lest members of local school boards be irritated to the extent that they would discipline any bold innovators who ventured to discuss the subject with pupils. The book deals with one of the so-called "controversial" topics which pupils hear discussed in their homes and in other places but never in the schools.

This new book has some defects. These are probably due to the lack of experience on the part of legislators in preparing literature for adolescents. Furthermore, the book seems to have been made ready without the regular editorial pasteurizing which an ordinary textbook gets in order to make sure that it is thoroughly sterilized—not to use a more appropriate word.

The present discussion of this extraordinary educational phenomenon is not going to make any adverse criticisms because comments suggesting possible improvements might be mis-

understood as implying that the book is not a contribution of the first importance to education. It is the conviction of the present writer that, if the legislatures of the other forty-seven states would devote some of their energy to educating American citizens-to-be on public policies, there would be a salutary and sudden spread of intelligence both throughout the nation at large and within legislatures themselves.

Coming directly to the point, this paper has the purpose of calling attention to a highly interesting and significant book published by the New York State Joint Legislative Committee on Industrial and Labor Conditions. The copyright is in the name of "The People of the State of New York." The title of the book is *The American Story of Industrial and Labor Relations*.¹

The Preface makes the sound and wise observation:

If the economic and social conditions of the people of New York are to attain still higher levels in the years ahead, all its citizens—young and old alike, both workers and employers—must share a common understanding of the true character of these relations.

¹ The school edition is obtainable from the Williams Press, Albany, New York, for one dollar a copy.

The Preface also states:

The Committee's educational program, as it has developed so far, is outlined in its 1942 and 1943 Reports. It includes a variety of objectives and activities. One is to provide the state's future citizens—who will become its employers and workers—a more adequate background for appraising state and national policies in the field of industrial and labor relations. This book has been designed for use in the upper high-school years and in introductory college courses [p. vi].

The first one hundred pages of the book present in four chapters vivid pictures of social conditions in the United States in the years 1790, 1840, 1890, and 1940. These chapters also include paragraphs on such topics as "The Pattern of Ideas: Political" and "The Pattern of Ideas: Economic."

Many readers of the *School Review* must have been impressed with Professor Franzén's recent article,¹ in which he called attention to important topics that are apparently inadequately treated in courses in American history. It will be recalled that he concluded his article with a plea that pupils be supplied with "a type of background that is now denied them." He then asked: "What authors, what book publishers, will lead the way?"

Like manna on the desert, the answer comes in a book prepared by legislators. American history lives in the first hundred pages of the book here under consideration, not in dates, names of presidents, and accounts of military campaigns, but in statements

about the daily lives of the ordinary people whose deeds rather than their pedigrees are recorded in history.

The authors of this book have taken sides in the controversy which has been raging of late as to what the content of a course in American history should be by omitting all reference to most of the topics about which questions were asked in the test that started the discussion. The legislators are interested only in such subjects as agriculture in 1790, inventions and patents in the decades from 1841 to 1941, immigration in the years from 1821 to 1940, and the difference in time required to make the journey from New York to Boston in 1790 and 1943. The legislators would undoubtedly be entirely undisturbed even though pupils were ignorant of the dates of the presidency of James Knox Polk and did not know whether he was the ninth or the thirteenth president or belonged in some other arithmetical category. The legislators are concerned only that pupils shall know what manner of persons their great-grandparents were.

The two hundred pages of the book which follow the summary of American social history discuss labor unions, their doings and misdoings, and labor legislation, its successes and failures. These topics are dealt with objectively and frankly in a way that will be sure to interest both pupils and teachers. The beginnings of unionization are described. It is told how, at first, small local organizations of workers were formed. The opposition in early times

¹ Carl G. F. Franzén, "American History: A Study in Placement," *School Review*, LI (November, 1943), 533-38.

to collective bargaining is recounted. The gradual establishment of national labor unions, the recognition in law of their rights, the growth of arbitration of disputes, the establishment of minimum wages, the control of working hours, and social security are discussed fully and freely. The contrast between the treatment of all these subjects in the book and the hush-hush policy of public schools is so striking that one is led to entertain the hope that the day will soon come when public policies on labor problems will have a sound foundation in general intelligence and will not be subject to determination by collective hysteria.

The people of the United States have witnessed in recent months the consequences of failure to deal soon enough and courageously enough with serious labor problems. The Congress of the United States passed labor legislation which is generally recognized as immature and defective. Action was taken hastily in an emergency which threatened the safety of the nation. It has to be acknowledged that American intelligence was tardy, if not fundamentally lacking.

It is a well-established principle of individual and social psychology that, when thinking and discussion on a vital problem are suppressed, a time will come when an intellectual upheaval will expose the unwisdom of evasion. The experience of the committee of the New York Legislature has led it to conclude that the way to avoid danger in the field of labor rela-

tions is to bring up a generation of citizens whose thinking has not been repressed.

Educators ought to be greatly encouraged by a book that is straightforward in the treatment of social problems which unquestionably should be dealt with on the basis of full knowledge of the facts. They ought to rejoice that civilization has reached the stage where timidity in dealing with such problems is seen to be unnecessary, where public leaders are bold in their frank discussion of these problems. It is not here argued that the individual teacher should attempt, singlehanded, to break through the crust of established restraints. It is the responsibility of the organized profession to do at least as much as legislators have done. If some energetic teachers' association would prepare material on the problems of the day and would sanction the use of this material by individual teachers, the burden would be removed from the shoulders of isolated individuals who are timid because they now have to operate with a minimum of professional support.

As one examines current contributions to the social studies, one is impressed by the fact that a large share of responsibility for the preparation of instructional material is thrown where it does not belong. Some educational organization decides that social studies must be promoted. It thereupon prepares an elaborate syllabus of topics, each of which is richly decorated with numerous reading

references that are said to contain an abundance of materials. The teacher is left to decide how safe it will be to select Topics 5, 13, and 28 and to bring into the classroom quotations from References A, B, M, and Q.

Why does not some teachers' association prepare a book? Legislators have set the style. Legislators cannot be dismissed by conservative boards of education. Neither can teachers' associations. There might be a short period during which a few local boards of education would try to match their influence with the public against the influence of a vigorous teachers' association. It is fairly safe to prophesy that the public would ultimately accept the technical judgment of a professional organization. Now that legislators have gone into the business of curriculum-making, there will be a great deal of experimentation, in which teachers should join even in the face of all possible opposition.

There may be a textbook very shortly on international relations. There have appeared, of late, notable contributions to the literature on American foreign policy. Two best sellers have appeared, either of which makes very suitable and inspiring reading for high-school pupils. It may be that after next November it will be entirely feasible to introduce the book

entitled *One World* into the schools of a community as sensitive to trends in public thinking as is the District of Columbia. If courses on labor unions and foreign policies get into the curriculum of public schools, there is hardly any social topic which will thereafter have to be thought of as objectionable. It will be proper to deal even with public expenditures and political parties.

Textbook publishers are likely to take note of the fact that legislators have entered their field. It is reported that, in general, publishers who supply schools with materials of instruction prefer to wait until a demand of such urgency arises that the risk of hesitation in accepting their offerings is slight. There has been only a halting demand for certain types of social-studies materials. The risk of publishing a book on labor would hardly have been assumed last year by a textbook publisher without careful weighing of many considerations.

It probably will not be well to leave the initiative in suggesting innovations in the curriculum entirely to legislative committees. It is gratifying to note, however, that such initiative is not wanting at least once in a generation. Perhaps with this example in mind, publishers, who are reputed to exercise no inconsiderable influence in school matters, will join the ranks of aggressive leaders.

ARE HIGH-SCHOOL PUPILS OF THE PRESENT DAY INFERIOR TO THOSE OF AN EARLIER PERIOD?

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EDUCATION beyond the elementary-school level was, until recently, reserved for the privileged few. Nowhere had there been extensive development of secondary schools such as has been witnessed within the past few decades in the United States. While expansion of high-school enrolment in this country has gone forward steadily since the turn of the century, most of the growth occurred during the period between World War I and World War II. The sharpest rate of increase came during the depression years, when there were few opportunities for youth outside the schools. By 1940 there were approximately seven million boys and girls in the high schools of this country. This enrolment represented about 75 per cent of the total population in the age group between fourteen and eighteen years. Twenty years earlier only 32 per cent of this age group was attending high school. In other words, population and enrolment statistics reveal that the growth of high-school enrolment during the interval between 1920 and 1940 was due primarily not to gains in population but to an increase in the proportion of youth attending school.

THE ASSUMPTION OF INFERIORITY IN THE STUDENT BODY

It is generally believed that the small student body of earlier years was made up of individuals highly selected with respect to intelligence and that the favored few who came into the high school were, as a group, distinctly superior to their numerous contemporaries who left school at or before completion of the elementary-school grades. It is often assumed that the great increment of pupils entering the high schools since 1920, and particularly that portion of this increment which came into the schools during the years when widespread unemployment made it almost impossible for young persons to obtain jobs, was drawn largely from a group inferior to the more select clientele of the period prior to 1920. Educational workers frequently imply that, with the arrival of these inferior youth, the high schools first faced the necessity of teaching many pupils of severely limited mental capacity.

There is much concern in some quarters over the low academic ability believed to exist among present-day pupils in the high schools. Teachers often express the conviction that the

pupils with whom they must now work are inferior to those who came into their classes in earlier years. Elementary schools are criticized for promoting children year after year, no matter how dull they are or how little they learn, and for eventually passing incompetents from Grade VIII into high school.

Strangely enough, there seems to have been assembled little evidence to show how much decline in mental ability, if any, has accompanied the expanding enrolment in high schools. Almost no schools seem to have records that can be used in comparing pupils from an early period with those attending recently. Adequate evidence as to the difference between early high-school pupils and youth of the same period who had not entered high school is still more difficult to obtain. No one has ever demonstrated that the small fraction of American youth attending high school prior to World War I was made up of persons who were inherently superior to those who left school to work or to those who, for various reasons, had no access to high-school facilities.

A STUDY SUPPLYING FACTS

Since there has been very little research designed to furnish direct evidence as to how present-day high-school pupils differ from their fore-runners in mental ability, the writer began several years ago to search for records that might serve this purpose. Professor W. S. Miller, author of one of the group intelligence tests which

came into wide use at an early date, preserved reports from a number of the first schools in which his test was used and kindly furnished the writer with some of these records. These records have made it possible to collect, in the schools of one small midwestern city, data which shed some light on changes that have occurred in the quality of pupils in the high schools of that community.

The Miller Mental Ability Test, Form A, had been given to all high-school classes in the city during the first week in April, 1923. Nineteen years later, during the second week in April, 1942, the same form of this test was repeated under conditions paralleling as closely as possible those which prevailed during the original testing. The local school officials co-operated fully on both occasions. The administration of the tests was done in each case by well-trained examiners, and the same examiner's manual, prepared by the author of the test, was followed in both instances. The pupils in the 1942 group were not familiar with the test, as it had not been used in the school for a long period preceding that date. Neither do they seem to have been more familiar with objective-test forms in general than were their 1923 predecessors, as extensive use had been made of such tests at the elementary- and high-school levels in this community during the period between 1916 and 1923.

During the interval from 1923 to 1942 enrolment in this school had more than doubled and had come to

include almost twice as great a proportion of the high-school age group as had been in attendance when the first testing was done. Thus, if the earlier student body had been a select group, superior to other youth of the community, the increase would have brought in large numbers from the inferior segment of the population. This change, as has been indicated earlier, is assumed to have been taking place in high schools generally and to have produced a decline in the quality of high-school pupils.

Scores were obtained for 651 pupils in 1923. At the time of the second testing, the number of scores obtained was 1,321. Comparison of the ability of the two groups of pupils has been made in terms of raw scores.¹ Preliminary analysis of these scores shows that the average of the 1942 group exceeds the average of the 1923 group by 4.5 raw score points. Furthermore, the distribution of scores for the recent group is slightly more homogeneous than that of the earlier group, and the difference favoring the more recent group is slightly greater in the lower portions of the distribution. Finally, the recent group is found to be slightly younger, on the average, than the group examined in 1923, and also more homogeneous with respect to age. When single grades are treated separately, the differences are found to favor the 1942 subgroups with com-

plete consistency throughout every grade, with respect to both average scores and average ages. When all the observed differences are taken into account, it appears that the 1942 pupils surpass those of 1923 by an amount averaging approximately nine months in mental age and that the group now attending school includes relatively fewer pupils of low ability than were present in 1923.

So far as the city in which these data were assembled is concerned, these facts negate completely the contention that the large student body in the high school today is inferior in mental ability to the smaller student body of 1923, even though it is widely believed that such smaller student groups were selected with respect to mental ability. It is especially clear that pupils making up the poorer portion of the group now in this school system are not inferior to the poorer students of an earlier time but that they are, instead, capable of making scores superior to those of their predecessors who stood equally near the bottom of the group of which they were members.

Questions regarding the qualities measured by the test used in collecting these data are appropriate at this juncture. Those who are familiar with the Miller test will recognize it as one of the best of the group tests which have been used throughout the years covered by this study. In addition to possessing higher reliability than many other group tests which have been in common use, it compares fa-

¹ A complete analysis of the data, together with a description of local conditions under which they were collected, will be published as a number of the Psychological Monographs.

vorably with other group tests as a valid measure of academic ability. This quality is the primary concern of the present study. Without making any attempt to establish the extent to which academic ability is determined by heredity or the readiness with which it is modified by any particular cultural factors, it can be accepted for certain purposes on the ground that it is a quality upon which schools place a great premium. If the pupils who come to high schools now exhibit more of this quality than their predecessors possessed, it is time to revise the widely accepted belief that increasing enrolment has been accompanied by lower academic ability among the pupils.

REASONS FOR IMPROVEMENT IN TEST FINDINGS

One may take the liberty of engaging in some speculation regarding possible causes for the gains in ability which have taken place among the high-school pupils of this community since 1923. While it is not easily possible to determine the exact influence of any of the factors that have contributed to the gains observed in this particular community, two classes of causes seem to have existed generally on such a wide scale that they deserve consideration.

First of all, commonly held beliefs regarding the select nature of earlier high-school pupils may be misleading. While there seems to be in the educational literature little or nothing which directly suggests that those pupils

who formerly remained in school were adversely selected, it is reasonably certain that many of those youth who left school prior to high-school graduation or who did not enter high school at all were superior in ability to the average of those who persisted in attendance. Among these there were no doubt a good many of those adventuresome boys who, at the earliest opportunity, left home to work. Who is there, among those knowing many boys of twenty or more years ago, who does not remember such cases? In other cases, superior students left school at an early age because of the school's demand for conformity, submissiveness, and docility among the pupils. Possibly there were even some who were too intelligent to spend their time on the program which the worst schools laid down for them and who chose the first opportunity that permitted them to devote their talents to any other activity. Altogether, these cases helped raise the average level of ability of the out-of-school group, which has so regularly been assumed to be inferior. There were, likewise, many young persons of superior potentialities who had no access to high school. Studies of youth during the past decade have shown that in many instances persistence in school is affected more by economic factors than by mental ability. Distance from high school was often a barrier to attendance not easily overcome by rural youth. Less than twenty years ago this barrier was sufficient to exclude from high school large numbers of

farm boys and girls, among whom all levels of intelligence were represented.

Briefly, there is considerable reason to believe that the out-of-school group from which the increases in secondary-school enrolment have been recruited included many superior youth. While this out-of-school group included all levels of ability, assumptions as to its inferiority were never adequately supported by any direct evidence and were probably exaggerated to a serious extent. This statement probably applies also to a portion of the approximately three million youth not now in high school, many of whom are excluded for economic, racial, and other reasons having little to do with the ability to learn.

A second group of factors, which may be more or less important than the matter of selection, also requires consideration. It is obvious that the ability about which we are now concerned involves, in large measure, facility in dealing with verbally expressed facts, relationships, and ideas. The environment of the average child has, during the past two decades, probably become progressively more favorable to the development of facility in dealing with this kind of material. The schools are no doubt doing a better job of developing this ability than they ever did before. The elementary schools, in particular, have provided many improvements, the most outstanding of which are probably to be found in the methods and the materials used in the teaching of reading. Beyond this, there are many factors in the child's surroundings outside the

schools that stimulate the development of verbal facility, and these have become increasingly effective during the period being considered. There are more newspapers, magazines, and books with which children come into contact. Information from the movie and the radio may exercise some influence in the same direction. Wide use of the automobile has greatly extended the range of experience for most children, few of whom formerly had much opportunity to travel or to talk with persons who had been outside the immediate locality. There have been other changes in the environment that have offered more favorable experiences to children in recent years. Better nutrition and increasing freedom from strict domination may be among the varied factors that have exercised some influence. Better health and less frequent sensory defects may be listed as examples of improving conditions. In short, children of the more recent period probably grew up under more favorable circumstances, both in and out of school, than did their forerunners a few decades earlier.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

The findings of this study may be viewed as evidence (1) suggesting the increased effectiveness of the schools and other educational influences and (2) suggesting, at the same time, further needed improvements in the secondary-school program.

Increased effectiveness of the schools.—It must be recognized that, even though the test used in this

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study is not designated an achievement test (scores on the Miller test are probably less influenced by variations in any specific school subject than are scores on most of the other intelligence tests of the paper-and-pencil type), it is, nevertheless, measuring a quality that depends very largely on educational opportunity. Two decades ago Hugh Gordon,¹ in his well-known study of canal-boat children, found this to be true with respect to the Stanford-Binet test, and since that date numerous studies showing the high community of function between various intelligence tests and general achievement batteries have afforded extensive support for Gordon's findings. Thus it is entirely appropriate to regard the results of this study as evidence that pupils now in the high school in which the data were collected have learned considerably more than was learned by the youth who attended this high school twenty years earlier. The learnings measured in this study do not consist of isolated bits of information, such as have often been assembled in some of the poorer but widely used objective tests. Instead, the test that has been used here requires facility in dealing with verbal materials, in discovering relationship expressed in verbal form, and in solving more or less novel problems presented through the use of verbal symbols. The conditions under which the test was given placed such premiums on both accuracy and speed that high

scores were impossible in case of deficiency in either of these qualities. A large share of this learning almost certainly took place in school. From what is known regarding the growth of such abilities as have been measured here, and in view of the fact that the majority of the pupils had been in high school less than seventeen months at the time when the testing was done, it is probably safe to attribute an extensive portion of the gains to improvements in the elementary schools. This conclusion does not, of course, rule out the influence of either the high-school or non-school experiences, both of which no doubt play significant parts.

Whatever the combination of factors that produced the observed results, it is clear that the higher average ability of the recent pupils was not due to a more limited selection or to any sort of restriction on attendance. The school system in which these data were collected had doubled its high-school enrolment since 1923, and the number in its high-school graduating class had grown to about 250 per cent of the 1923 figure. In every high-school class the average pupil was younger than the average found in the comparable class nineteen years before.

Improvements needed in the schools.—

While a study of this type deals with a small part of those broad and diverse areas to be canvassed before detailed conclusions can be made concerning the nature of the most desirable secondary-school program, the implications of the findings of this investigation, if paralleled in other lo-

¹ *Mental and Scholastic Tests among Retarded Children*. Educational Pamphlets, No. 44. London: Board of Education, 1923.

calities, are entirely clear with respect to one point. They certainly offer no support for the proposal that the educational clock be turned back¹ to exclude from high school any of the youth who are now attending. Instead, they may be considered as urgent reasons for a program leading in the opposite direction. Approximately half the young people in this country either fail to enter high school or withdraw prior to graduation. Many of them are, without question, fully as well equipped to benefit from suitable high-school education as the average pupil now in our high schools. It seems appropriate to look for means of extending high-school facilities as rapidly as possible after the war, so that they will be readily available to all youth. With further improvements in the effectiveness of education at the elementary level, the proportion of "high-school material" may very well increase until it includes all youth except an extremely small percentage of cases that can be properly termed defective because of pathological conditions. If we are to have restrictions on high-school attendance, some other argument for such restrictions will need to be found, for it is probable that almost all youth have such potentialities for learning that pre-high-school programs based on the best available knowledge of education and

child development will bring them to secondary-school age fully ready to proceed through several years of further school with results that will benefit both the individual and the community.

This is not to say that all youth are equal in ability. From what has been learned on this point, it is known that important individual differences exist—differences so great that thus far few high schools have adequately provided for them. But in the light of the findings that have been set forth here, it seems most probable that increasing enrolments have not been accompanied by a greater range in individual differences among pupils with respect to intelligence. Instead of greater heterogeneity with respect to intelligence, the range of measured differences in the 1942 group with which this study deals is actually smaller than the range for the 1923 pupils. At the same time it is possible, and indeed highly probable, that the range of differences in other important qualities not measured in this study increased as enrolment grew.

There are good reasons for believing that the pupils now come from a greater variety of home conditions and with more varied backgrounds than ever before. Most important of all, they vary more than any previous generation of pupils in their interests, their aspirations, and their personal values. The fact that the great gain in high-school enrolment came at a time when youth found it most difficult to obtain employment supports this view. Just at present this negative re-

¹ Compare Tildsley's statement: "We must turn back the clock to take some five million boys and girls from the educational dole."—JOHN L. TILDSLEY, *The Mounting Waste of the American Secondary School*, p. 89. The Inglis Lecture, 1936. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1936.

lationship between enrolment and opportunity to engage in other activities is manifesting itself, as some youth choose to work instead of continuing in high school. To put it most bluntly, some youth come to high school only when there is nothing else to do. The youth who make this choice are not, as a group, deficient in ability; among them there are many who are intelligent, aggressive, and eager to participate in significant action. They sometimes fail to conform to the demands and restrictions of the high school; many of them make poorer impressions on their teachers than did the typical high-school pupil of earlier decades. Temporarily, while there is a choice, some of them leave school to work, and others join the Navy before they reach draft age. As soon as demobilization takes away these choices, high schools will face more than ever before the necessity of providing highly varied programs to serve adequately new millions of active intelligent youth—youth of the kind who come into traditional high schools only when there is nothing else for them to do.

It is high time that the secondary schools be planning to meet the new demands that will be made on them when demobilization begins. Enrolment estimates should assume that the percentage of youth attending throughout the high-school years will surpass the pre-war figure. Curriculums should be diversified far beyond anything to which we have been accustomed. There will be a place for academic courses, but there must be, in addition, opportuni-

ties for many other types of experiences. Realistic study of the pressing, persistent personal problems faced by young people, no matter how slight the interest of these young people in academic questions, will be imperative. Vocational training in numerous fields will be necessary. Beyond this, there will be a need for part-time work experience, which should be available to pupils whether or not they need formal vocational training such as is given in the classroom or shop. Recreational and leisure-time activities in greater variety than have previously been available will be in demand. Finally, in order to help each individual member of the more heterogeneous student body utilize the resources of the school without great waste, there must be much more thoroughgoing guidance than the high school now provides.

If the high school is to serve youth who come to it with interests of every sort, it must really study each individual until those interests are understood. If there is to be an extension and improvement of vocational preparation, the high-school pupil will require better help in the choice of an occupation. If the high school is to accept youth with more varied backgrounds, it must prepare to offer more highly individualized educational programs suited to those backgrounds. In short, as the high school's clientele becomes more heterogeneous, it must not only add variety to its program but must give more attention to the individual if wise use is to be made of the variety that is provided.

MEANINGFUL RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN HOME AND SCHOOL

EDWIN A. JUCKETT

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HOME-SCHOOL relationships, like many other twentieth-century activities, become increasingly difficult as our society becomes more complex. There was a time, particularly in the days of the one-room school, when parents were thoroughly familiar with methods, aims, practices, and personalities in the school. There had been little change since their own school days. In many cases the same books, perhaps even the same lesson plans, were in use. Now the picture has changed. Methods are different, and aims have broadened. Parents gasp and remark, "We never had anything like this when we went to school," and summarily hand over the education of their children to the faculty.

But training a child is not so simple as that. The education of the child continues concurrently in both home and school, and his complete development depends on the close relationship of the two institutions. In numerous instances the mother has charge of the child's home growth, the father steps in to give the offspring a "raking-over" at intervals, and the school takes over the teaching of the three R's and sundry offerings. There

may be a complete vacuum between the home and the school, although the child is developing twenty-four hours of the day, whether at home or at school. This situation nullifies the many opportunities that exist to work co-operatively for the good of the individual child. What to do about it? Let us proceed on the premise that the initiative should come from the school.

FOSTERING A CO-OPERATIVE SPIRIT

The school must take the responsibility of fostering a co-operative spirit within the system. In the building of this rapport, the attitudes of children, teachers, and parents must be taken into consideration. All must feel that education is a co-operative venture in which the welfare of the child is always the first consideration. On the part of the teachers there must be understanding, sympathy, professional spirit. On the part of the child there must be a feeling of security in this three-way co-operation, an interest and happiness in the school situation, and a knowledge of the goal that is ahead. On the part of the parent there must be an understanding of school aims, a willingness to spend some time working with the school, and a feeling

that the school has a real interest in "the most important child in the school system."

There are many ways in which the school can assure the parent that he not only is welcome but is urged to participate in the formal education of the child. Invitations should be presented at every opportunity: on special days and on every day; through newspaper items, bulletins, letters, and reports; through teacher visits to homes, active interest in the parent-teachers' association and its meetings and in teacher-parent committees. If casual invitations do not work, then planned events must be carried out—and in this day and age it is a foregone conclusion that planning will be necessary.

IMPORTANCE OF HOME VISITS

Provided that there is a proper attitude on the part of the faculty, one of the most important items in the maintenance of good home-school relationships is the home visit. Developing proper teacher attitude, through selection and in-service training, may be both discouraging and time-consuming, but it must be an aim of the progressive administrator. The aim having been achieved to the degree that it is safe to attempt the device, there are certain criteria that should be established for the home visit:

1. The visit must be purposeful and must be made for the benefit of the child. A real interest must be shown in the child, and the teacher must have a give-and-take attitude

with the parents. In the writer's district, elementary-school teachers visit homes for the purpose of delivering the first report forms of the year.

2. There are some good points in every child, and the conversation should open on that note. If there are bad points to be talked over, these should be broached after the child has been praised for his good qualities.

3. Teachers should try to place themselves on the level of the family and should distinctly discourage the thought that they are social-service workers, "snoopers," or relief agents.

4. Parents and children should expect the call. This can be arranged by notes, "left-handed invitations," and other tactful means.

5. The practice of visiting the home only when the child is in trouble should be avoided. There are many more good than bad actions that can be reported, and the school should take advantage of this condition.

6. The home-room teacher should take the responsibility of making the home visit. This arrangement is desirable because it is a time-saving device and also because it is the home-room teacher who has the most direct responsibility for the education of the child while he is in school.

7. The teacher, for a parting remark, can invite the parents to repay the visit by coming to school.

8. At some time during the visit the teacher may act as an interpreter of school aims and philosophy, always remaining on the intellectual level of the parent.

9. Following the visit, the teacher should make written notes. These notes may be filed in the guidance folder for the benefit of other teachers who may not have the opportunity to visit the home. These reports should be strictly confidential, strictly professional, and should be used only by those who have a direct teaching or supervisory relationship with the child.

10. Many children have problems. Teachers should attempt to discover the reasons for the problems in order to deal scientifically with the children.

RESULTS OF HOME VISITS

Results of home visits are many and varied, but it is important to point out a few of them.

If the child has been praised, he immediately feels a sense of adequacy because he knows that the teacher has noticed a good point and has taken the time to report to his parents. In the writer's experience, there have been many cases of carry-over where children have taken new leases on their educational lives. Every parent likes to hear good reports about his children, and the vast majority of parents will have a real appreciation for the teacher who takes the time to visit and to talk about the children. In many cases the home visit will be followed by a renewal of the parents' interest in the development of their children. There will be many who will realize, for the first time, that schools are interested in attitudes, citizenship, worthy home membership, physical

and mental health, and other aims of the twentieth-century school. As a result of these reactions, the feeling that education is a co-operative enterprise may be born in the minds of children, parents, and teachers.

Of all the results that will accrue in the educational life of the child, the largest single value will come from the teacher's better knowledge of the child and his home background. There is usually a reason for the "ornery" child, the saucy child, the sleepy child, the disrespectful child, the daydreaming child, the noisy child. The home visit may very well provide the key that will open the door to the solution of an individual problem. To illustrate, three examples are cited.

RUTH

Ruth, a seventh-grade, attractive, little blonde girl of thirteen years, was boy-crazy, boisterous, and at times disrespectful of authority. The boy-crazy attitude led to long "powder-and-paint" sessions in the girls' room and consequent loss of time from class. The same trait led Ruth to think more about "looking pretty for the boys" than about the lesson at hand. The boisterousness often upset class discussions, and at times there was open rebellion when she was reprimanded.

The home visit revealed:

- a) Ruth was born in this country, but her parents were foreign-born and spoke Polish in the home.
- b) The father was the domineering type.
- c) Father and mother, though living in the same house, had not spoken to each other since the birth of the last baby, two years old at the time of the visit.
- d) The mother, a semi-invalid, did practically no housework.
- e) Ruth, the oldest child, had most of the

responsibility for the upkeep of the home and its six members.

- f) Ruth could not entertain her friends at home.

Interpreted, these revelations meant:

- a) There was very little security in Ruth's life. Living in a home bereft of love, Ruth was trying to get this love somewhere else.
- b) Ruth was finding her own ways and means of obtaining the recognition and attention that every child wants.
- c) A wide difference existed between an autocratic home and a democratic school—such a wide difference that Ruth could not easily adjust to the change.

What could the school do for Ruth?

- a) Teachers could spare some love and understanding for Ruth. The home-room teacher could give her the feeling that she was wanted.
- b) Ruth could be directed into clubs or activities where she could obtain the companionship that she needed.
- c) Personal success could be pointed out to her, and she could be commended for it. This would give her personal satisfaction and a sense of adequacy.
- d) Through personal interviews and classroom situations, Ruth could be taught about the rights of others.

BARNEY

Barney, a retarded, over-age boy, made life miserable for every eighth-grade teacher in the building. He shouted. He resented almost any kind of authority. He announced to his home-room teacher, "I am going to be very bad today," and would then proceed to be just that. He got into fights. In short, he was Problem Number 1 for about four months.

The home visit revealed:

- a) Barney's father, a chronic alcoholic, had been dismissed from his job on the railroad for stealing company property.

Owing to this record and the alcoholism, he could not get another job, and the family was on relief.

- b) At home, where the "break-every-bone-in-your-body" type of discipline was in use, Barney acted in the same way as he did at school.
- c) There was little else than squalor, bickering, poverty, and ill will in Barney's life.

Interpreted, these revelations meant:

- a) The school could not expect much in the line of normal behavior from a boy with so many stresses, thwartings, and conflicts.
- b) Thirty-two hours a week in school is not very much time to attempt to solve such a serious problem.
- c) Barney had a great deal of difficulty in recognizing any act as a friendly one, any attitude as a cordial one.

What could the school do for Barney?

- a) The principal spent many hours discussing with Barney proper attitudes, citizenship, goals, behavior.
- b) There were parent-teacher-principal-Barney conferences.
- c) School jobs on which he could earn some money were given to him. This settled a problem in the physical-education class, as some of the money was used to buy a "gym" suit.
- d) There was a psychometric examination, which proved many of the points that had been suspected.
- e) Attempts were made to provide situations in which Barney could gain recognition and security in proper ways.
- f) An outside job was found for him, whereby he could earn some money for clothes and other needs.
- g) His schedule was changed so that he had male teachers in most of his subjects. With the family background, his better co-operation with male teachers probably had many implications.

TOM

Tom, an emotionally upset and unstable boy in Grade VII, appeared almost manic-depressive at times. He had been the bane of existence of his teachers and at one time held the Number 1 spot as problem child. Resentment of authority, sullenness, refusal to conform to ordinary rules except under severe pressure, periods of depression, almost complete lack of self-control, and outright rebellion characterized his behavior.

The home visit revealed:

- a) There were the usual middle-class comforts and amusements.
- b) The father, a hard-working artisan, had a steady job and also worked off-hours, Saturdays, and Sundays on private contracts. He often took Tom and his brother on these jobs with him.
- c) The father had the motto, "Spare the rod and spoil the child." He criticized the school for using any other method and instructed the principal to whip Tom when his behavior was bad.
- d) The mother, a neurotic, was the "jawing" type and appeared to have no logical place in the home with either children or father. All three "put her in her place" as disagreements arose.
- e) The family was willing, but possessed very limited capacity, to co-operate with the school in bringing about a change in Tom's personality.

Interpreted, these revelations meant:

- a) The school should work more closely with the home and should use every device of home-school relationship that might work.
- b) Inasmuch as "hollering" and paddling were the only disciplinary measures that Tom had ever known, perhaps they might be employed to a limited extent.
- c) An overnight cure could not be expected. Neurotic parents set up a

home environment that produces neurotic children. A change in environment might help.

- d) The good things in Tom's home life should be pointed out to him, because he had nothing but criticism for father, mother, brother, and home in general.

What could the school do for Tom?

- a) There was the usual system of conferences, stressing self-control, citizenship, rights of others, etc.
- b) Tom was changed to another section and placed under the guidance of a sympathetic home-room teacher who asked for the assignment.
- c) A weekly report on scholarship and citizenship was sent to the home.
- d) Definite time limits were set in which Tom was to try very hard to "stay on the beam," to master the art of self-discipline.
- e) Recognition was given to Tom during a war-bond drive in which he contributed in an outstanding way.
- f) At one time, at the suggestion of the parents, he lived with his grandmother for several weeks. This ended, however, when the grandmother reported that Tom could not get along with the other children of the neighborhood. Tom was shipped home.
- g) An extra special attempt was made to bring his marks up, with the idea that this would give him a taste of success.

What happened to Ruth, Barney, and Tom? At the end of four months Barney "went into his shell" for about two weeks. Then he came out and became a good school citizen for the rest of the year. In addition to being a good school citizen, he also began to get satisfactory marks in his courses. He left school to take a full-time job,

but he returned in a short time and completed the year satisfactorily. During the summer vacation he again took a job and did not return to school in the fall. When last seen, he visited the school in a Navy uniform. It is the writer's guess that Uncle Sam has a much better seaman because of a public school's effort in reconstructing a personality.

It is too early to say what happened to Ruth and Tom, but at the present writing Ruth is no longer a discipline problem. Tom is getting better marks, and during a four-week period he had only one flare-up. The four-week period was broken by a vacation, and on the first day of his return to school he got into trouble in three classrooms. This is an important observation. Reconstructing a personality takes time, and there will be reverses. Patience and perseverance are virtues that must be possessed by educators.

It can be said without fear of argument that these three cases could not have been dealt with successfully if teachers had been unaware of the home conditions. Although help from home was secured in only one case, it is not to be assumed that this poor response is general. In many instances families ask for suggestions, and the understanding teacher can give the professional advice that is being sought.

THE LARGER OUTLOOK

These stories of Ruth, Barney, and Tom are characteristic of the stories of approximately a million maladjusted children in American schools. There are, in addition, about twenty-nine million other school children who could be helped by closer home-school relationships. For the million badly adjusted children the public schools could well use the services of visiting teachers and psychiatrists, in addition to regular home-room and classroom teachers. The writer maintains, however, that educators take the wrong attitude when they throw up their hands and say that it is useless to attempt to help these children, while society debates the pros and cons of spending money on education in order to save money on mental and penal institutions. There are many cases that can be, and are being, solved in school systems where enlightened methods are employed by trained and professionally minded staffs.

As teachers become scarcer, as parents become busier, as human life becomes less valuable, and as individuals become less important, it behooves education to place even greater emphasis on such a device as the home visit. Schools and homes hold the next generation in their hands; it can be a better generation as a result of careful and meaningful co-operation.

AN UNORTHODOX VIEW OF LATIN

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AN ENDURING INTEREST IN LATIN

AS A boy in what we then called the "grammar grades" (back in the period when grammar was actually taught), sometimes in study hour I used to look through the window toward the high school which was plainly visible a block away. "Some-day," I thought, "*I* shall be going there too." In that now-distant time it was a distinction to be a high-school pupil. It did not mean merely "entering the ninth grade." It meant passing into a superior realm, quite apart from the comparatively simple and childish occupations in which one had previously spent one's hours and days. It would be the beginning of mysterious new subjects of study, the very names of which excited a certain awe. In my own case, the name which aroused most curiosity, most eager expectation, most wonder as to what it might be "like," was always Latin.

There had never been any doubt in my family, and certainly not in my own mind, about my following the four-year Latin course. For one thing, it was considered standard preparation for the subsequent study and practice of law, which we all took wholeheartedly for granted as my future calling. Aside from professional

interest, however, it seemed clear that Latin was necessarily a part of a really respectable education. So far as the whole Western world is concerned, there is still much to be said for that opinion. However, my own attitude was, on the whole, practically disinterested. I simply nourished a deep desire to become acquainted with the learned language which appeared to be so highly regarded. I wanted to see what sort of thing it would turn out to be.

I was not disappointed. In fact, my first year of Latin proved much more interesting than I had ever expected. The textbook, though nothing like so profusely illustrated as modern editions, contained a fair number of stimulating pictures. We prepared no elaborate notebooks, we did not search for "Latin" words in the newspapers, we carried out no "projects." No one tried to "sell" us Latin as a means of learning English, in which we were supposed to be already literate. We just learned Latin and liked it. The chief "factor," no doubt, was a teacher who knew her subject very thoroughly, knew how to explain it, and believed in it enthusiastically. We had the greatest single blessing that language students can have—a favor-

able and encouraging start. That initial momentum carried us through a fairly dull second year, into a third year which was somewhat brighter, and finally through a reading of Virgil's *Aeneid*. For those of us who stuck through that fourth year, there remained very little of Latin grammar or rhetoric that was not clear as daylight. If the connected story of Aeneas' wanderings was largely lost upon us in that study, it made no real difference, for we got most of that anyway as an adjunct to our ancient history. Latin grammar and vocabulary we *did learn*. With that solid preparation, several of us out of that class easily distinguished ourselves in Latin at college, where I received my highest marks in that subject, with less effort than I gave to most others. It was still "fun." In later years I learned more Latin and liked it only the better.

Perhaps by this time it will have become fairly clear that all my early conditioning was such as to dispose me favorably toward Latin and that my taste for it lasted well beyond the point of a high-school diploma. Though brought up on the King James Version of the Bible, I like some passages much better in the wording of the Latin Vulgate. I derive real pleasure from reading (not simply "translating") the Latin quotations which one finds prefacing or interspersing the work of the older English essayists. Yet as a sincere purist I strongly dislike the mixing of tongues; I wish to take my Latin "straight."

Such half-breed phrases as "per pound" or "per day" are distinctly offensive to me. Let the fanatical Latinist say *per libram* or *per diem*; I prefer the natural English "a pound" or "a day." Moreover, I am convinced and feel fairly well able to demonstrate that, when the study of Latin has seriously affected the English style of a writer, that influence has generally been for the worse. The better one really *knows* languages, the more definitely one keeps them apart, each from the other, as separate registers of the mind, different worlds which one does not confuse.

ILLEGITIMATE ARGUMENTS FOR LATIN IN THE CURRICULUM

Despite my long-standing interest in Latin, which was my favorite study at a very impressionable age, of late years I have been often annoyed at the illegitimate arguments advanced in favor of that subject. These seem now to have hardened into a tradition. They form a part of the indoctrination of high-school pupils generally throughout this country. Educators belonging to "progressive" or "advanced" groups sometimes appear to be the very ones who most enthusiastically propagate these traditional ideas.

To a certain extent, no doubt, these arguments for Latin can be pardoned in view of the situation in which teachers of that language began to find themselves a generation or two ago. The subject was obviously losing much of its former prestige. "Prac-

tical" considerations were influencing pupils and parents to pass Latin by, to turn their attention rather to studies which had conspicuous connection with "the modern world in which we live." Something had to be done. So, to stem the tide and save the cause of Latin, every available talking-point was exploited. In a desperate position the arguments that a person uses are naturally chosen, not so much for their fundamental truth, as for their probable effectiveness. *On se défend comme on peut.* Does the end justify the means? Evidently a good many people have thought so, but some of us feel that in the long run any merely specious claim may do more harm than good.

An argument for learning Latin which has long been urged is the idea that it is the "key" to all the "Romance" languages and therefore the best kind of preparation for acquiring these later. French or Italian or Spanish would be "easier" for us, they said, if we first knew Latin. This argument is an excellent example of the kind of abstract logic that used to govern much of our educational thought. On the surface it seems plausible enough, but it ignores the fundamental realities which make all the difference.

To perceive the fallacy, we have only to recall vividly just how Latin is necessarily taught and learned in our schools. Always, always it is a matter of "translation." Our young people do not learn to *read* Latin, to say nothing of learning to speak or

think in it; at most they learn to decipher it as a sort of puzzle. Translating Latin is like a game in which you have to keep a good many rules constantly in mind. Now, with any kind of intelligent methods, the student of a living modern language, after half the length of time, knows it far better than he could hope ever to know Latin. With reasonable persistence, he will presently have an easy familiarity with it such as no one can possibly have with Latin in our day except a few erudite scholars who devote their lives to it. Eventually, indeed, a person learns many things about a living tongue that simply cannot be learned at all about a dead language. The amount of "help" which Latin can give anyone in later study of the "Romance" languages is more theoretical than real.

A few years ago a Latin enthusiast applied this idea of "salesmanship" in what was evidently thought to be a clever remark: "He who knows Latin knows French, Spanish, and Italian at their source; he still has some distance to travel, but it is *downstream* with the current." If we *must* resort to such childish, metaphorical means of persuasion, the answer is easy enough: we do not go to springs and rivulets in order to learn river navigation. As a matter of fact, too much studying of Latin *first* may be a positive handicap for really learning modern languages later on, because of its unavoidable emphasis on visual methods and translation. To consider a

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really fair analogy, would anyone seriously suggest to a foreigner, desirous of learning English, that he begin with *Beowulf* or even with Chaucer? Yet there is much closer continuity between Chaucer and modern English than there is between Latin and French or even Italian.

It is ironical that French, the one so-called "Latin language" which from the beginning has been most intimately and profoundly connected with our cultural heritage, is the language for the learning of which a previous knowledge of conventionally taught Latin is of least help. Really it seems more reasonable to believe that familiarity with Latin may make it easier for an English-speaking student to learn German; for in both there is the elaborate and complicated system of inflection which French and English, as truly "modern" languages, have almost completely outgrown.

Search my mind as I may, I can see only one detail in which Latin helped me at all in mastering French: it explained the fact that certain words of apparently feminine form, such as *squelette* or *musée* or *trophée*, are on the contrary masculine, having descended from Latin neuters. This information as to their development was not necessary in order to *remember* the gender of these French words but was merely interesting as showing the reason for the gender. On the other hand, knowing French (which I know vastly better, because I learned it as a *living* language) has made the vocabulary of

Latin ever so much easier for me than it was before.

Perhaps the most perniciously misleading of all the specious "reasons" for studying Latin is the gross exaggeration of the "debt" of English to that language. For uncritical adolescents, and apparently for many teachers, the question is settled for all time by a mere unsupported statement in a textbook. Comparatively conservative is the assertion in a *Junior English Book*: "It is estimated that nearly one-third of our language is, directly or indirectly, of Latin origin."¹ This, of course, remains cautiously vague and protects itself by the "indirectly," which covers most of the ground. Many published statements are not bound by any such conservative restraint. A recent magazine article asserts that "about 55 or 60 per cent of English words have their origin in Latin."² One of the newer textbooks for beginners in Latin informs the student that "about 60 per cent of our English words are derived from Latin."³ The result of such indoctrination may be seen in this typical testimony from a college student: "When I was in the eighth grade, I was told to take Latin my first two years in high school. One of the rea-

¹ Alfred M. Hitchcock, *Junior English Book*, p. 98. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1920.

² K. A. Sarafian, "Latin in the Curriculum," *School and Society*, LV (February 14, 1942), 174.

³ B. L. Ullman and Norman E. Henry, *Latin for Americans*, First Book, p. 2. New York: Macmillan Co., 1941.

sons given was that *most* of our words were derived from Latin words. I grew up with this misconceived idea." Even among those who go through college, probably there will be few who will ever be disturbed in that kind of crude misconception.

Of course such gross exaggeration is rationalized by a loose use of the term "derived." It means that any word is glibly classified as "Latin" if its ancestry can be traced back to some Latin word, by however long or devious a path. The plain and easily demonstrable fact is that *most* of the so-called "Latin" words in English—nearly all the common ones that everyone knows and that most truly belong to our tongue—simply came into English as French words. The fact of their being of remote Latin descent, when it was a fact, had nothing to do with their adoption into English. Be it granted, for the sake of argument, that the majority of French words had developed from Latin origins. Certainly not *all* of them had, however, by any means, and French words from any other ultimate source came into English just as easily as did the "Latin" ones, in the same way, and for the same reasons. To speak of French words as "Latin" is not merely irrelevance but impertinence, an arbitrary insistence on an artificial, pedantic point of view. They came into English not only with French forms but with French meanings, often far removed from what the source words had signified in ancient Latin. This is

the principal reason why a speaker can always take a popular audience by surprise with a pseudo-etymological explanation. We are astonished to learn that this or that common word "really means" so and so "because" a certain Latin word (which we never adopted) meant so and so, whereas of course the English word never had such meaning or any reason for that meaning.

Here is an example of such philology as it is served up to us from time to time in newspaper columns: " 'Soldier' was derived from the Latin word *solidus*, meaning 'a solid piece of money.' "¹ The truth is that English simply adopted the old French word *soldier*, which has changed to *soldat* in modern French. Until comparatively recent times, soldiers were a professional class and were thought of as being hired and *paid* (though much less well paid than now!), but we may be sure that no one was thinking particularly of ancient Roman coins when the word *soldier* came into English from French—as did practically all our military terminology: "infantry," "cavalry," "artillery," "corporal" (corrupted from *caporal*), "sergeant," "lieutenant," "captain," "colonel," "general," "squad," "company," "battalion," "regiment," "division," "corps," "army," and so on. If *real* derivation is to be a criterion for the choice of a language to study, then one conclusion is inescapably clear: on this basis there is at least twice as

¹ *Kalamazoo Gazette*, July 14, 1942.

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strong an argument for studying French as for studying Latin.

Almost never any more is anything said about the reasons for studying Latin which caused it to become "classical" and traditional. Aside from practical use as an international language of scholarship, religion, and diplomacy, Latin was valued because it enabled a person to read certain great books of antiquity. Now it hardly needs to be said that only a negligible few of our present-day students ever learn Latin well enough really to *read* anything in that language. The classics, moreover, to which Latin would be the "key," are among the easiest things to obtain in translation. As a means of access to literature, less can be said for Latin than for any leading modern language; a vastly smaller proportion of modern literature ever gets translated.

There are good-sized high schools in which up-and-coming Latin departments have practically driven out all classes in modern foreign languages. Devices of propaganda are worked for all they are worth. The influence of session-room teachers and teachers of English is enlisted in persuading pupils that Latin is "the best all-round language to take." Endlessly echoed are the traditional nineteenth-century arguments in favor of Latin as basic preparation for the modern tongues, with accompanying emphasis on Latin as an aid to the study of English, whose "debt" to the language of

Cicero is expressed in the usual fanciful terms.

Have we not had enough of such delusive claims? If anybody wants to learn a "Romance" language, let him attack it directly, from all sides, as it is *now*, and forget about whether it is supposed to come from Latin or not. Similarly, if a knowledge of English is considered desirable, then instead of counting on "help" from Latin, one should acquire the knowledge by studying English itself, as actually can be done.

LEGITIMATE ARGUMENTS FOR LATIN

Are there good arguments for studying Latin? Yes, I think there are. The *real* arguments, as I see them, are perhaps more truly classical in spirit than the motives which actuated students when Latin first came into its classical vogue. For one thing, it does present a certain kind of mental discipline which young people of our day seem unlikely to get otherwise. Then it is "a nice thing to know" for one's own satisfaction—if one does get to the point of knowing it—and a pleasant intellectual contact with others who know it too.

Learning Latin may well give a student more tangible and "practical" benefits, but I think the Latinists will do well not to insist upon these. For an active-minded person who promptly perceives connections and correlations, any knowledge that he ever acquires about anything may unex-

pectedly prove helpful in relation to something else from which it would seem at first very far removed. This, however, is of the nature of a by-product, which one never really gets except by principally going after the main thing, in this case Latin itself for Latin's sake. Learning Latin—*learning* it, not merely “taking” it—may incidentally be of some help in French or English, but the student for whom it has any important value in connection with either of these languages will be the student who *already* has a good knowledge of English or French. Whatever be the usefulness of Latin as an auxiliary, it cannot be conceived as a substitute.

More and more as I look back on my own experience with it, I value the study of Latin because it is essentially disinterested. Surely there may well be something in the curriculum—for those not too completely extrovert—to be studied just for its own sake. Of course such an idea may not encourage large enrolments in Latin. Perhaps we should not expect to have large enrolments. If the high-pressure Latinists keep on trying to “sell” Latin by such intellectually dishonest arguments as they have been overworking for a good while now, the day may come when a revolt of all realistic-minded people will drive out the subject altogether.

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SELECTED REFERENCES ON SECONDARY- SCHOOL INSTRUCTION

II. THE SUBJECT FIELDS

*

THE same grouping of subject fields is being followed for the lists of references in the February and March numbers of the *School Review* as was used in the cycles of lists published during 1933-43, inclusive. The concept of "instruction" is also the same and includes curriculum, methods of teaching and study and supervision, and measurement. In each subject field the list includes items published during a period of approximately twelve months since the preparation of the list appearing last year.

ENGLISH¹

DORA V. SMITH

University of Minnesota

51. BROWN, STERLING A., DAVIS, ARTHUR P., and LEE, ULYSSES G. (editors). *The Negro Caravan*, pp. 2-7. New York: Dryden Press, 1941.

Presents in the Introduction a critical review of the Negro stereotypes in literature by means of which prejudice is fostered and urges recognition of the traits of individual personalities.

¹See also Items 406 (Gray), 414 (McCaul), and 458 (Vickery and Colé) in the list of selected references appearing in the October, 1943, number of the *Elementary School Journal*. In Item 342 (Gates, Jersild, McConnell, and Challman) appearing in the May, 1943, number of the *School Review*, McConnell presents, in a chapter entitled "The Development of Meaning," a penetrating discussion of the relationship of vocabulary and generalization to experiences.

52. CARLSON, MARY I. "The West Rockford Experiment in Sophomore English," *Illinois English Bulletin*, XXX (October, 1942), 1-10.

Describes a unified course in tenth-grade English to replace segregated semester courses in composition and literature in the Rockford (Illinois) High School.

53. COHEN, ROSE N. "Approaching the Air Age through English," *Education*, LXIII (October, 1942), 101-4.

Demonstrates how to incorporate literature, information, and the aesthetic appeal of the airplane into the program in speaking, writing, and reading.

54. COLE, STEWART G. "Good Will among Americans," *Educational Method*, XXII (November, 1942), 51-58.

Offers stimulating suggestions for using Christmas as a point of departure for programs and reading related to interracial and international good will.

55. COOK, LUELLA B. "What Kind of Lesson Plan Is Best Suited to Language Development?" *English Journal*, XXXII (March, 1943), 138-42.

Makes a plea for combining experience with positive teaching of language, and instruction about language with experience in using it.

56. "English in the Victory Corps," *English Journal*, XXXII (June, 1943), 303-9.

Presents the official statement made by the National Council of Teachers of English to government officials in Washington.

57. FLEMMING, CECILE WHITE, and ALDRICH, GRACE L. "The Development of Study Skills and Work Habits in the Horace Mann School," *Teachers College Record*, XLIV (March, 1943), 433-48.
Discusses the study habits and skills taught by one of the schools in the Eight-Year Study.
58. GLENN, CLARA. "A Class Study of Trash Magazines," *English Journal*, XXXII (January, 1943), 27-30.
Provides an interesting outline for discussing the relative worth of magazines.
59. GLICKSBERG, CHARLES I. "English Instruction and the War," *English Journal*, XXXI (December, 1942), 707-13.
Presents concrete, helpful suggestions for teaching English in wartime.
60. GREY, LENNOX. "Communication and War: An Urgent Letter to English Teachers," *English Journal*, XXXII (January, 1943), 12-19.
Proposes reorienting the program in expression and literature in terms of the communication of ideas in a world at war faced with the responsibility of preparing for a world at peace.
61. HANDLAN, BERTHA. "Group Discussion of Individual Reading," *English Journal*, XXXII (February, 1943), 67-73.
Demonstrates concretely a method of handling classroom discussion of literature when no two pupils have read the same book.
62. HARRIS, HORTENSE. "'In the Hourly Walk of the Mind's Business,'" *English Leaflet*, XLII (May, 1943), 69-74.
Urges the importance of humanistic studies as an escape from war and as an essential factor in preparation for peace.
63. JACOBS, ELIJAH L. "School-Teacher English," *Catholic World*, CLVI (November, 1942), 164-71.
Presents an entertaining objection to broad *a's* and imposed pronunciations not indigenous to the locale in which they are taught.
64. JOHNSON, WILLIAM H. "English Curriculum Revision, Chicago High Schools," *English Journal*, XXXII (January, 1943), 31-36.
Outlines a valuable, comprehensive plan of organization for curriculum revision, with a resulting program which is staggering in its breadth.
65. LEONARD, J. PAUL, and OTHERS. "Language Arts and Fine Arts," *Review of Educational Research*, XIII (April, 1943), 69-114, 162-89.
Presents a comprehensive critical review of research in the language arts from 1940 to 1943.
66. LOS ANGELES COUNTY, DIVISION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION. "Suggestions for Observance of Pan-American Day in Elementary and Secondary Schools." Los Angeles County Schools Monograph M-59. Los Angeles, California: Office of the County Superintendent of Schools, 1943. Pp. iv+28 (mimeographed).
Gives full helps and bibliography for units on inter-American friendship.
67. MANNING, F. M. "A Democratic Procedure in Teaching English," *Junior College Journal*, XIII (November, 1942), 153-56.
Describes a stimulating course for non-majors in English in the junior college.
68. "Military English." Portland, Oregon: Portland Public Schools, 1943. Pp. ii+48 (mimeographed).
Offers a practical outline in reading and expression restricted to the military experiences that boys will have when they leave school.
69. REDEFER, FREDERICK L. "The School's Role in Winning the War and the

- Peace," *Progressive Education*, XIX (October, 1942), 300-318.
- Analyzes problems which English and other subjects can help solve in wartime. Accompanied by helpful bibliographies.
70. RIEFLING, ADELINE ALDRICH. "Report of Two Reading-English Classes," *School Review*, L (October, 1942), 587-95.
- Presents a carefully worked out plan for discovering and aiding ninth- and tenth-grade pupils who are deficient in the language arts.
71. ROBERTS, HOLLAND D., KAULFERS, WALTER V., and KEFAUVER, GRAYSON N. (editors). *English for Social Living*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1943. Pp. xiv+366.
- Presents an able analysis of the social function of language, concretely exemplified by the practices in teaching English which evolved from the Stanford Language Arts Investigation in twenty-eight secondary schools.
72. ROCKOWITZ, MURRAY. "Fighting Ideas and Ideals for the 18 Year Old Selectee," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXIV (December, 1942), 19-27.
- Outlines with striking effectiveness the ideals toward which the high-school program in all subjects should be working at the present moment.
73. ROSE, ELIZABETH LAMAR, and DAVIS, MARY HOUSTON. "An English Unit on Aviation," *English Journal*, XXXII (March, 1943), 126-32.
- Describes an excellent suggestive unit for Grade VIII, motivated by a reading of MacLeish's *Air Raid*.
74. ROTHENBUSH, VERONA F. "Developing Active, Thinking Citizens," *English Journal*, XXXII (April, 1943), 188-95.
- Describes a vigorous attack on the problem of securing the social and psychological values inherent in the English program of junior high school pupils.
75. ROWLAND, HOWARD. "Crime and Punishment on the Air." Evaluation of School Broadcasts Bulletin No. 54. Columbus, Ohio: Evaluation of School Broadcasts, Ohio State University, 1942. Pp. 16 (mimeographed).
- Analyzes popular radio serials for children and indicates that, though right triumphs, the law is commonly ignored.
76. RUGG, MINNIE. "In the Four Seas All Men Are Brothers," *English Journal*, XXXI (December, 1942), 719-25.
- Presents an excellent junior high school unit on China, involving skills, information, and attitudes.
77. SMITH, DORA V., HANDLAN, BERTHA, and MERIDETH, DOROTHY. "Free and Inexpensive Materials on Problems of Education for the War and Reconstruction." Minneapolis, Minnesota: Folwell Book Store, University of Minnesota, 1943. Pp. 28 (mimeographed).
- Gives names, addresses, and prices for the purchase of materials of use in units in English and social studies.
78. TIMMONS, WILLIAM M. "Weaknesses in the Social Conversation of College Students," *College English*, IV (October, 1942), 50-57.
- Analyzes helpfully, for classroom teaching, problems of conversation between members of the same sex and of opposite sexes.
79. TRESSLER, J. C. "Drill on Fundamentals," *Journal of Education*, CXXVI (February, 1943), 40-42.
- Offers specific help concerning the best drill practices substantiated by research.
80. WALRAVEN, MARGARET KESSLER. "Reading: The Librarian's View," *English Journal*, XXXII (April, 1943), 198-203.
- Analyzes the functions served by reading today and urges the importance of broadening the program in English to serve those needs.

81. WYKOFF, GEORGE S. "Reading as a Problem in Composition," *College English*, IV (January, 1943), 245-54.

Discusses four types of reading which materially aid college Freshman composition and urges increased attention to them.

THE SOCIAL STUDIES:

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This year, contrary to past practice, articles from *Social Education* and the *Social Studies* have been included in this list; because of limited space, however, regular monthly features such as "Sight and Sound in Social Studies" have been excluded.

82. ARNDT, CHRISTIAN O. "Far Eastern Studies for American Youth," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXVII (April, 1943), 8-26.

Urges greater stress on the Far East in courses for all pupils and suggests methods and materials.

83. BEATTY, E. C. O. "Man's Nature and the Social Studies," *School Review*, LI (October, 1943), 476-84.

Suggests considerations to be heeded carefully by those who plan and administer a curriculum in the social studies.

84. BOLDT, ALBERT W., and DECK, CLARA M. "Planning a Latin-American Unit in American History," *Social Studies*, XXXIV (May, 1943), 201-8.

Suggests materials, methods of presentation, and content. Includes a useful bibliography.

¹See also Item 364 (Mendenhall and Harap) in the list of selected references appearing in the September, 1943, number of the *Elementary School Journal*; Items 458 (Vickery and Cole), 485 (Bolton), and 495 (Lonsdale) in the October, 1943, number; and Item 3 (Edwards) in the January, 1944, number of the same journal.

85. BRANOM, FREDERICK K. *The Teaching of the Social Studies in a Changing World*. New York: William H. Sadlier, Inc., 1942. Pp. 338.

A new "methods" book for actual and prospective social-studies teachers. Useful at both elementary- and secondary-school levels.

86. CARPENTER, HELEN MCCracken, and WHITTED, DOROTHY J. "Readable Books for Slow Learners," *Social Education*, VII (April, 1943), 167-70.

On the basis of an experiment concerned with the reading of slow learners at the junior high school level, sets forth and illustrates desirable criteria for good reading materials.

87. CORDIER, R. W. "History and the Teaching of History in the Public Schools," *Social Studies*, XXXIV (November, 1943), 294-96.

Suggests ways of avoiding undesirable repetition in the cycles of American and European history in elementary and secondary schools.

88. CORYELL, VANSANT. "New Objectives for the Social Studies," *Social Studies*, XXXIV (May, 1943), 195-201.

Discusses concepts, skills, and attitudes which the social studies may teach.

89. COTTRELL, DONALD P. "Curricula for Democratic Education," *Teachers College Record*, XLV (October, 1943), 32-42.

Calls for emphasis on work experience, study of social security and of major culture areas of the world, and implementation of the processes of political democracy.

90. DANIEL, WALTER GREEN. *The Reading Interests and Needs of Negro College Freshmen Regarding Social Science Materials*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 862. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942. Pp. xii+128.

Reports a study of social-science topics preferred by Howard University Freshmen and compares these choices with the reading recommendations of a jury of experts.

91. DIXON, DOROTHY I. "Community Resources Pave the Way," *Educational Screen*, XXII (February, 1943), 47-51.

Reports enrichment with audio-visual aids of a social-studies project in a rural area.

92. DUNFORD, ROSS. "Social History as a Class Project," *School* (Secondary Edition), XXXI (February, 1943), 531-34. Describes the co-operative study of social history in a Canadian secondary school.

93. ELLIS, ELMER. "Recent American History in the College," *Social Education*, VII (November, 1943), 310-12.

Recommends that college courses in United States history place greater emphasis on the period since 1890 or 1900 as a means of avoiding undesirable repetition of the content of high-school courses.

94. FARNSWORTH, BURTON K. "Revision of the Social Studies in Utah," *Curriculum Journal*, XIV (April, 1943), 180-82.

Procedure of social-studies revision and recommendations for Grades VII-XII. Especially interesting with respect to differentiation of content of American history for Grades VIII and XI.

95. FINE, BENJAMIN. "Ignorance of U.S. History Shown by College Freshmen," *New York Times*, XCII (April 4, 1943), 1, 32-33.

Gives *Times* test in American history and reports and interprets the results of its administration to seven thousand college Freshmen. This article was followed by numerous articles in the *Times*, in other newspapers and periodicals, and, especially, in educational magazines. Some of the more important articles in the *Times* were: H. R. Fraser's attack on the "social-studies movement" (April 5, 1943, p. 13); comments of educators (April 6, 1943, pp. 1,

15); Congressional reaction (April 7, 1943, pp. 1, 13); Regents' test and "hoax" charges by the *Harvard Crimson* (April 8, 1943, p. 15); comments by John W. Studebaker and Mrs. F. D. Roosevelt (April 13, 1943, p. 52); letter from W. F. Murra and *Times* editorial (April 15, 1943, p. 24); Erling M. Hunt's comments (April 18, 1943, p. 38); report of the committee to investigate history-teaching and to make recommendations (June 23, 1943, pp. 1, 24). See also the *Congressional Record* of April 6, 1943, and Bernard DeVoto's "The Easy Chair" in *Harper's Magazine*, CLXXXVII (July, 1943), 129-32.

Among the articles in educational journals which are important contributions to the discussions initiated by Fine's article, the following are important: Raymond D. Bennett, "United States History in Our High Schools," *School and Society*, LVIII (August 21, 1943), 126-28; Paul P. Boyd, "The *Times* Test and Our Public Schools," *School and Society*, LVII (May 29, 1943), 620-23; H. S. Broudy, "History without Hysteria," *School and Society*, LVIII (August 14, 1943), 106-7; Abraham Margolies, "The *New York Times* American History Survey," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXV (May, 1943), 5-10; and James Morgan Read, "History versus the Social Sciences," *School and Society*, LVIII (September 4, 1943), 149-51. See also Items 104 and 116 in this list.

96. FRANZÉN, CARL G. F. "American History: A Study in Placement," *School Review*, LI (November, 1943), 533-38.

A report of the understanding possessed by average junior and senior high school pupils of several significant concepts usually presented in United States history courses. Conclusions indicate a need for a different type of history (or a different mode of presentation) in the junior high school.

97. *Guide for the Study of American Social Problems*. Compiled for the American Social Problems Study Committee. New York: Columbia University Press, 1942.

Primarily a guide to materials for adult study groups discussing current social problems. Useful also for high-school teachers of government, economics, and social problems.

98. HARTLEY, WILLIAM H. "Films for Asiatic Studies in American Education," *School Review*, LI (April, 1943), 219-27.
Lists and describes briefly films of interest to teachers of the geography, history, and problems of the Pacific, of Eastern Asia, and of India.
99. HARVEY, C. C. "How a High School Used Its Community as a Laboratory for Social Education," *Social Education*, VII (February, 1943), 71-73.
Reports on the techniques of an excellent project of community study in an underprivileged locality.
100. HAYES, WAYLAND J. "An Exploratory Study of Objectives for Introductory Sociology," *Social Forces*, XXI (December, 1942), 165-72.
Reports an interesting rating of objectives for the introductory college course in sociology.
101. HOCHSTEIN, JOSHUA. "Inter-American Education in a Large City High School," *Educational Outlook*, XVII (January, 1943), 58-67.
Describes the work of Evander Childs High School, New York City, in the study of Latin America. Other articles in the issue are devoted to the same general area.
102. HORROCKS, JOHN E. "An Experiment in American History," *Social Studies*, XXXIV (April, 1943), 154-61.
Reports methods and results of dramatization of the Constitutional Convention of 1789 by three senior high school classes in American history.
103. HUNT, ERLING M. "The Social Studies in Wartime," *Teachers College Record*, XLIV (April, 1943), 465-72.
Appraises strength and weakness of the social studies as revealed by the war and suggests practicable adaptations and trends which the author considers desirable.
104. HUNT, ERLING M. "The *New York Times* 'Test' on American History," *Social Education*, VII (May, 1943), 195-200, 240.
Criticizes searchingly the *Times* test and the resulting agitation and suggests what needs to be done.
105. JOHNSON, HENRY. *The Other Side of Main Street: A History Teacher from Sauk Centre*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1943. Pp. viii+264.
Combines delightful reminiscences with humorous and serious observations on the teaching of history. A must book for teachers of the social studies.
106. KENWORTHY, LEONARD S. "Better Citizens for a Better World," *Educational Outlook*, XVII (November, 1942), 16-25.
Discusses methods of making secondary-school pupils aware of the needs and problems of society and eager to share in responsibilities for its future development.
107. LANGSDORF, W. B. "Teaching Issues and Aims of the War," *Progressive Education*, XX (February, 1943), 85-87.
Gives syllabus and references for a two-unit course in Grade XIII. Useful for high-school courses in social problems.
108. LEEVY, J. ROY. "Social Competence of High-School Youth," *School Review*, LI (June, 1943), 342-47.
Reports ratings received by high-school youth on a Social Usage Scale.
109. McNAMARA, SISTER JUSTA. *The Teachability of Certain Concepts in Modern European History in the Secondary School*. Johns Hopkins University Studies in Education, No. 33. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1943. Pp. xiv+172.

Reports a study which throws some light on the relation of mental and chronological age, socio-economic status, and school experience to high-school pupils' understanding of selected concepts in modern European history.

110. MORSE, HORACE T., and McCUNE, GEORGE H. "Testing Study Skills: A Few Considerations," *Social Studies*, XXXIV (February, 1943), 67-69.
Sets forth criteria for good tests of study skills.
111. NEUMANN, FREDERIC T. "A Technique for Responsible Citizenship," *Social Studies*, XXXIV (January, 1943), 3-10.
Analyzes the "technique of responsible citizenship" in terms of understanding and use.
112. PRICE, ROY A. "Pre-induction Training in the Social Studies," *Social Education*, VII (November, 1943), 307-9.
States some contributions of the social studies in pre-induction training and outlines contents of a forthcoming bulletin on the subject.
113. ROGERS, SARAH. "A Description of a Teacher's Work with Tenth Grade Pupils in English-Social Science," *Southern Association Quarterly*, VII (August, 1943), 347-65.
Reports progressive experiment with pupil-teacher planning.
114. SMITH, B. OTHANIEL. "Social Studies in General Education," *Journal of Higher Education*, XIV (November, 1943), 404-8.
Suggests three college courses: one in the origin and development of the democratic ideology, another in crucial social problems, and a third in methods of social thinking.
115. SOWASH, WILLIAM BURTON. "A History of the Americas," *Social Education*, VII (October, 1943), 259-61.
Proposes a senior high school course in which the history of the rest of the Americas is integrated with that of the United States instead of the more usual addition of a unit or two to the United States history course. Includes a useful bibliography.
116. STRAYER, JOSEPH R. "Compulsory Study of American History—An Appraisal," *Public Opinion Quarterly*, VI (Winter, 1942), 537-48.
A leading historian marshals the arguments against compulsory college courses in United States history and indicates ways of improving introductory college courses in the subject.
117. TRAXLER, ARTHUR E. "Progressive Methods as Related to Knowledge of American History," *School and Society*, LVII (May 29, 1943), 640-43.
Reports test results which indicate that students' factual knowledge of United States history does not vary significantly with the progressive or the conservative educational outlook of the schools attended.
118. VAN LOAN, W. L., and WILLIAMS, MILDRED. "Essentials of a Social Education Program," *Curriculum Journal*, XIV (May, 1943), 225-28.
Defines social education broadly and calls for a carefully planned program. Emphasizes democracy, social understanding, basic skills, home relationships, economic competence, and guided experience.
119. VITCHA, LEONARD A. "Wartime Social Studies in Junior High School," *Social Education*, VII (November, 1943), 315-18.
Filled with specific practical suggestions for integrating into a "going" curriculum the new materials closely related to the war effort.
120. WEAVER, ROBERT B., and REHAGE, KENNETH J. "The Social-Studies Program in the University of Chicago High

School," *School Review*, LI (January, 1943), 26-32.

Describes procedures in a required social-studies program in Grades VII-X, in which co-operative pupil-teacher planning dominates instructional procedures.

121. WESLEY, CHARLES H. "The Treatment of the Negro in the Teaching of United States History," *Social Education*, VII (November, 1943), 295-300.

Indicates needed revisions in interpretation of the Negro in American history books and courses.

122. WESLEY, EDGAR B. "History in the School Curriculum," *Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, XXIX (March, 1943), 565-74.

Discusses whether or not the teaching of history is declining in the schools, sets forth frankly reasons for the unsatisfactory state of history in the schools, and suggests what needs to be done.

123. WIETING, C. MAURICE. *How To Teach Consumers' Cooperation*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1942. Pp. xvi+206.

Sketches the consumers' co-operative movement, surveys present American teaching about it, and suggests seven units on the subject.

124. WILHELMS, FRED T. "Concepts of Consumer Education," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXVII (February, 1943), 25-35.

Reviews concepts of consumers' education and calls for a defined terminology. Gives a useful bibliography.

125. WILSON, HOWARD E. "Asia in the School Program," *Educational Record*, XXIV (January, 1943), 14-23.

Suggests practical ways in which secondary schools may increase their students' understanding of Asia and Asiatics and promote more desirable attitudes in this area.

GEOGRAPHY

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126. BARTON, THOMAS F. "Meteorology and the High School," *Journal of Geography*, XLII (March, 1943), 81-90.

Discusses meteorological training as part of physical geography. Includes a helpful bibliography.

127. COLLIER, JAMES E. "Geography in the High Schools of Arkansas," *Journal of Geography*, XLII (April, 1943), 134-44.

Gives data concerning number, percentage, and types of Arkansas high schools offering geography; types of courses offered; grade placement; enrolment; and qualifications of teachers offering the instruction.

128. CULBERT, JAMES. "Some Objectives in Teaching the Geography of Latin America," *Journal of Geography*, XLII (September, 1943), 230-32.

Stresses need for clear-cut objectives and gives examples of desirable aims.

129. DALZELL, A. H. "Systematic Geography Teaching," *School* (Secondary Edition), XXXI (March, 1943), 624-26.

Describes a well-equipped geography room and suggests a systematic method of study involving notebook work and valuable individual work with maps.

130. DEACON, A. S. "South American Cities," *School* (Secondary Edition), XXXI (May, 1943), 778-87.

Presents material for a teaching unit.

131. "Geography Bottleneck," *Newsweek*, XXI (March 15, 1943), 74, 76.

Notes, and cites reasons for, the dearth of material and of qualified instructors for war-training courses.

132. "Geography in Schools: Its Place and Purpose," *Times Educational Supple-*

- ment (London), No. 1465 (May 29, 1943), p. 255.
Pleads for geographic instruction on the ground that geography is the focal subject in gaining unity of knowledge needed in solving regional and international problems.
133. JELINEK, FRANCES. "Map Comes Alive," *Wisconsin Journal of Education*, LXXV (May, 1943), 480.
Tells of a successful procedure in using outline maps in current-events work.
134. KEELING, W. LORNE. "Let's Make Geography Practical," *School* (Secondary Edition), XXXI (February, 1943), 535-38.
Describes the use of journeys in making geography real and in developing enlightened, tolerant citizens.
135. LAMM, LUCIAN, and CAMPSER, HERMAN. "Co-ordinating Economic and Physical Geography," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXV (February, 1943), 31-38.
Gives an account of attempts to build a course of study for "fifth-term" students.
136. LLOYD, TREVOR. "Practical Geography in the High School," *Journal of Geography*, XLII (February, 1943), 61-68.
Deplores bookish geography, stresses need for field and laboratory work, and discusses practical work with maps and with the home region.
137. MAXEY, MIMA. "The Place of Geography from the Viewpoint of Orientation in the History and Culture of the Ancient World," *Journal of Geography*, XLII (January, 1943), 7-11.
Pleads for scholarly geographic material for use in orientation courses in the humanities—materials which can be produced only by research workers trained in the ancient languages involved as well as in geography.
138. MEYER, ALFRED H. "Geographical Regionalism of World Problems," *Journal of Geography*, XLII (February, 1943), 68-76.
States, with concrete examples, the need for "true geographic perspective of regional and racial relations of all mankind" in order to preserve democracy.
139. "National Council of Geography Teachers: Report of Committee on Standards of Certification for the Teaching of Geography in High Schools," *Journal of Geography*, XLII (February, 1943), 41-58.
Reports findings of an analysis of current requirements for certification and proposes requirements which should be met.
140. PACKARD, LEONARD O. "Geography in Our Schools," *Social Studies*, XXXIV (February, 1943), 71-74.
Emphasizes the necessity for geographical knowledge about all the continents if we are to be citizens who can participate intelligently in affairs critical today and tomorrow.
141. RENNER, GEORGE T. "Two Kinds of Geography," *Social Education*, VII (February, 1943), 62-66.
Uses the case of Japan to illustrate the danger to a nation of inadequate geographical education and points out that effective geographical understanding is too complex to be developed adequately at the elementary-school level.
142. RENNER, GEORGE T., and MEYER, ALFRED H. "Geography for Tomorrow's Citizens," *Educational Method*, XXII (February, 1943), 204-9.
Predicts greater emphasis on geography in secondary education and suggests the direction that such emphasis should take.
143. RISTOW, WALTER W. "Maps: How To Make Them and Read Them," *Journal of Geography*, XLII (October, 1943), 258-65.

- Presents an extensive bibliography under such headings as "General Works on Cartography," "Classification and Care of Maps," "Map Surveying and Drafting," "Military Maps and Mapping."
144. RUMBLE, HEBER ELIOT. "Morse's School Geographies: An Eighteenth Century Science Textbook Series Used at the Junior-High-School Level," *Journal of Geography*, XLII (May, 1943), 174-80.
Outlines entertainingly the purpose and the content of early American geographies.
145. SCHERRER, CHARLES F. "St. Louis Can Be Bombed! (A Problem in Place Geography)," *Journal of Geography*, XLII (March, 1943), 112-16.
The results of a test reveal startling lack of knowledge on the part of high-school pupils.
146. SHANNETTE, LINDEN E. "Geography by the Laboratory Method," *School* (Secondary Edition), XXXII (September, 1943), 61-65.
Shows how, using a well-equipped laboratory, active learning experiences may be provided in each class period.
147. STILES, DAN. "Why Not Teach Geography?" *Harper's Magazine*, CLXXXVI (May, 1943), 626-32.
Cites evidence of shocking national ignorance of geography; points out dearth of teachers equipped to teach it and failure to meet the critical need for it in high schools; and recommends for high schools a four-year course in geography which will give students the basic geographical understanding they need.
148. WALINSKY, LOUIS. "A Wartime Calendar for Economic Geography," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXV (April, 1943), 72-74.
Lists, under topics concerned with the strength of the Allies, questions calling for use of facts of history and of economic geography.
149. WHITAKER, J. R. "The Place of Geography in the Social Studies: From the Viewpoint of Conservation Education," *Journal of Geography*, XLII (January, 1943), 12-21.
Discusses contributions of geographers to actual conservation work of government agencies, the teaching of conservation in geography courses, and objectives and principles which should guide the teaching of conservation.
150. WHITAKER, J. R. "Teaching Geography in a World at War," *American School Board Journal*, CVII (September, 1943), 32-34.
Answers ten questions of the types asked by teachers and laymen about current conditions, changing emphases in courses of study, and maps and other tools.
151. WHITTEMORE, KATHERYNE THOMAS. "Geography for the Air Age," *New York State Educational Journal*, XXX (December, 1942), 173-75, 228.
Makes a plea for more emphasis on globes and on the interpretation of landscapes and for geography of a type essential in developing a point of view and a way of interpreting experience which are of profound significance in an air age.
152. WHITTLESEY, DERWENT. "The Place of Geography in the Social Studies for Orientation in a World of Changing National Boundaries," *Journal of Geography*, XLII (January, 1943), 1-6.
Uses Alsace to illustrate the cohesiveness of regions and the fact that, of the social sciences concerned with boundary changes, only geography offers a base fixed in nature from which the historical, political, economic, and sociological effects of the change can be measured.
153. WILLKIE, WENDELL. "Airways to Peace," *Travel*, LXXXI (September, 1943), 33.
Pleads for geographical training that will lead to thinking in terms of the world as a whole.

154. YATES, EVERETT C. "How I Teach New England," *Journal of Geography*, XLI (December, 1942), 321-28.

Gives a lucid account of the content and the method of a unit on New England.

SCIENCE

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155. BLIVEN, BRUCE. "Scientists at Sixteen," *School and Society*, LVII (January 16, 1943), 57-61.

Describes the successful efforts of the Science Clubs of America and the Annual Science Talent Search to encourage scientific interest among young people.

156. BRANDWEIN, PAUL F. "The Science Film as a Demonstration," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXIV (December, 1942), 69-74.

Outlines a technique for teaching science with silent films from which all titles have been removed. Author maintains that this technique results not only in increased retention but in stimulation of reflective thinking based on observations.

157. CAHOON, G. P. "Competency in Science Teaching—Not Credit Hours," *Science Education*, XXVII (February, 1943), 1-6; (September-October, 1943), 55-60.

A discussion of the limitations of beginning teachers and suggestions on how these limitations can be overcome by an adequate teacher-training program.

158. COZENS, REG. A. "Inexpensive Equipment for Teaching Electricity: Science—Grades X-XII," *School* (Secondary Edition), XXXI (January, 1943), 437-41.

Many of the standard laboratory experiments on magnetism and current electricity can be performed with the inexpensive equipment described in this article.

159. *Educational Outlook* (Special Issue on Science), XVII (May, 1943), 145-78.

An issue devoted to science, with topics ranging from a consideration of the place of science in the modern world, some desirable objectives for college biology, and knowledge required to teach wild-life conservation, to the presentation of possible activities for nature study.

160. GERARD, R. W. "Science Education and the Contemporary World," *Journal of Chemical Education*, XX (January, 1943), 45-50.

Gives concrete suggestions, supported by experimental evidence, for the improvement of science in general education.

161. HAUPT, G. W. "Improved Education of Science Teachers," *Science Education*, XXVII (February, 1943), 26-28.

Advocates a reorganization of science courses in teachers' colleges which will facilitate the synthesis of the ever accumulating details of science into a concurrently decreasing number of principles.

162. "High School Science and Mathematics in Relation to the Manpower Problem: A Report of the Cooperative Committee on Science Teaching," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLIII (February, 1943), 127-57.

Reviews changes in high-school science and mathematics required by the manpower situation and outlines a policy designed to meet the need.

163. LARK-HOROVITZ, KARL. "On the Preparation and Certification of Teachers of Secondary School Science," *American Journal of Physics*, XI (February, 1943), 41-42.

Preliminary report of the Cooperative Committee on Science Teaching. Gives the minimum requirements recommended for certification of prospective teachers.

164. MATHEWSON, FRANKLIN T. "The Relative Value of Supervisory Agencies in Secondary-School Science Teaching,"

Educational Administration and Supervision, XXVIII (December, 1942), 684-90.

Shows that the head of the science department has the highest rating of all supervisory agencies evaluated.

165. NOVAK, BENJAMIN J. "Needed Changes in Science in the Secondary School," *School Review*, LI (March, 1943), 164-68.

Points out that the decline since 1910 in the interest in secondary-school science is unfortunate in the light of the increased part that science is playing in the daily life of the people. Proposes courses to fill the needs both of the prospective lay consumer and of the future technician.

166. POWERS, S. R. "Education of Science Teachers," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXXVI (November, 1942), 232-33.

Large educational and social objectives are identified by the Sub-committee on Teacher Education of the Co-operative Committee on Science Teaching, and a re-definition of areas of science in the general curriculum is set forth.

167. PRESTON, CARLETON E. "How Shall We Adjust High-School Science to the War Effort?" *High School Journal*, XXVI (March-April, 1943), 77-89.

A letter from a university professor to a supervisor of instruction reviewing statements in various government bulletins pertinent to the problem. Includes an annotated bibliography of sources other than science textbooks and science magazines sold on the newsstand.

168. SCHNECK, JOHN W., and CURTIS, FRANCIS D. "The Important Scientific Terms in High-School Physics," *School Review*, L (December, 1942), 715-20.

A report of a study to determine which terms in physics merit inclusion in glossaries and textbooks, as judged by textbook authors and college professors of physics.

169. SISSON, JEROME C. "Selecting Functional Subject Matter for a General

Science Course," *Science Education*, XXVII (February, 1943), 22-26.

An investigation using a range-of-knowledge test, information provided by parents and teachers, and a check list of interests to determine the desirable content of a seventh-grade course in science.

170. STICKLER, W. HUGH, and WALTER, RAYMOND L. "General Science in the Panama Canal Zone," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLIII (May, 1943), 405-17.

A rather thorough description of the experiences of two teachers in fitting a general-science course to the Canal Zone environment.

171. TAYLOR, LLOYD W. "Physics Teachers and Technology," *American Journal of Physics*, XI (October, 1943), 259-61.

Emphasizes the importance of humanizing science instruction without reducing the technical content.

172. TYLER, RALPH W. "The Role of Education in Our Present Emergency," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLIII (February, 1943), 99-104.

Warns against duplication in the high school of training that will be more efficiently given by the Army and emphasizes the necessity of meeting basic educational needs which are not likely to be met in military life.

173. WILSON, STERLING O. "A Biology Classroom 'Zoo,'" *School Science and Mathematics*, XLIII (April, 1943), 345-51.

Gives suggestions for feeding animals kept in the classroom.

174. WISE, HAROLD E. "A Synthesis of the Results of Twelve Curricular Studies in the Field of Science Education," *Science Education*, XXVII (February, 1943), 36-40; (September-October, 1943), 67-76.

An investigation to determine which principles of physical science are most important for general education.

MATHEMATICS

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175. ARENWALD, MESMIN. "Recent Trends in Revising the Curricula in Mathematics for Junior High Schools in New York City," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXV (December, 1942), 344-48.
Summarizes the procedure followed in revising the curriculums in mathematics in a large city school system.
176. BERGEN, M. C. "Engineering Students versus Other Students in Freshman College Mathematics," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXVI (April, 1943), 159-63.
Compares achievement in mathematics made by students in various curriculums in a single college.
177. CARNAHAN, WALTER H. "A Program for Improvement of High School Mathematics," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLIII (November, 1943), 758-65.
Makes suggestions that point the way toward a workable program for the improvement of high-school mathematics.
178. CHRISTOFFERSON, H. C. "Mathematics Basic to Navigation," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLIII (March, 1943), 254-64.
Specific suggestions for timely, significant problem materials.
179. CONGDON, ALLAN R. "Training in High School Mathematics Essential for Life," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXVI (May, 1943), 195-202.
Presents evidence indicating that students studying mathematics may be attaining some important objectives which in teaching and testing are frequently considered intangible.
180. COOK, INEZ M. "Developing Reflective Thinking through Geometry," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXVI (February, 1943), 79-82.
Describes an experiment at Lincoln (Nebraska) High School in teaching plane geometry.
181. CRONBACH, LEE J. "What the Word 'Function' Means to Algebra Teachers," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXVI (May, 1943), 212-18.
Reports serious disagreement among teachers concerning the exact meaning of the function concept.
182. "Essential Mathematics for Minimum Army Needs," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXVI (October, 1943), 243-82.
A report prepared by a committee of mathematics teachers in co-operation with representatives from the Civilian Pre-induction Training Branch of the Army Service Forces and the United States Office of Education.
183. FOUST, JUDSON W. "The Responsibility of the Mathematics Teacher in Curriculum Building," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXVI (March, 1943), 102-5.
Points out the importance of co-operative planning in curriculum construction and the part that the mathematics teacher should play.
184. GORMAN, F. H. "What Laboratory Equipment for Elementary and High School Mathematics?" *School Science and Mathematics*, XLIII (April, 1943), 335-44.
Summarizes the returns on a questionnaire from thirty-two authorities in the teaching of mathematics.
185. GUILER, W. S., and HOFFMAN, H. B. "Dividing Mathematics Time between Arithmetic and Algebra," *School Review*, LI (October, 1943), 471-75.
Describes an experiment undertaken to discover the effect on achievement both in computational arithmetic and in algebra when the time ordinarily spent on algebra alone is divided between remedial arithmetic and algebra.

186. HART, WILLIAM L. "Short Term and Long Term Effects of the War on the Secondary Curriculum in Mathematics," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLIII (June, 1943), 499-508.
Suggests a program for secondary mathematics during the war period.
187. KINNEY, L. B. "The Reorganization of Mathematics for the Emergency," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXVI (January, 1943), 3-10.
Proposals for action on a program in mathematics important both in the armed forces and on the home front.
188. MCKIM, MARGARET GRACE. *The Reading of Verbal Material in Ninth Grade Algebra*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 850. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941. Pp. viii+134.
A study undertaken to analyze the demands made on the reader by the subject matter of elementary algebra.
189. PATILLO, MANNING M., JR. "The Selection of Books in the Field of Mathematics," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLIII (May, 1943), 468-75.
Lists criteria important in the selection of textbooks.
190. "Pre-induction Courses in Mathematics," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXVI (March, 1943), 114-24.
A committee representing the United States Office of Education and the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics reports on a survey of the mathematical needs of the armed forces and suggests what the schools can do for the emergency.
191. RAHN, GRANT. "A Redirected Emphasis on Individualized Mathematics for All," *School Review*, LI (May, 1943), 279-82.
Presents a plan used in one high school in counseling pupils registering in mathematics.
192. ROBERTSON, FRED. "Some Phases of the Mathematics Testing Program at the Iowa State College," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXVI (November, 1943), 296-302.
Gives an analysis of a set of scores on a test covering high-school algebra and also indicates how the test scores are used in counseling students.
193. SCATES, DOUGLAS E. "Statistics—the Mathematics for Social Problems," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXVI (February, 1943), 68-78.
Points out how important it is for high-school students to understand the statistical approach in solving problems and suggests several sources for instructional materials.
194. SCHORLING, RALEIGH. "Trends in Junior High School Mathematics," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXV (December, 1942), 339-43.
An excellent summary of trends in the mathematics courses during the past twenty-five years.
195. *A Source Book of Mathematical Applications*. Seventeenth Yearbook of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942. Pp. xvi+292.
Provides an extensive list of applications of mathematics grouped under the headings of arithmetic, algebra, geometry, and trigonometry. Compiled by a committee under the chairmanship of Edwin G. Olds.
196. STEIN, HARRY L. "Characteristic Differences in Mathematical Traits of Good, Average, and Poor Achievers in Demonstrative Geometry," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXVI (April, 1943), 164-68.
The summary of a study dealing with prognosis in plane geometry.

197. WEST, ROSCOE L., and SHUSTER, CARL N. "The Teaching of Approximate Computation," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXVI (April, 1943), 147-54.

An elementary presentation of a neglected topic for use in junior and senior high school classes.

198. WHYBURN, WILLIAM M. "Mathematics for Production and War," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXVI (November, 1943), 291-95.

Maintains that the mathematics needed in war is the same as that needed in time of peace.

FOREIGN LANGUAGE

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199. BASILIUS, H. A. "The German Noun Plurals," *Modern Language Journal*, XXVII (October, 1943), 426-42.

Classifies German nouns according to plural formations based on vocabulary frequency lists.

200. BISHOP, RUTH E. "Government Uses of Foreign Languages," *Modern Language Journal*, XXVII (May, 1943), 333-38.

Explains vocational opportunities in government service for persons with foreign-language preparation.

201. BOLINGER, DWIGHT L. "The Position of the Adverb in English—A Convenient Analogy to the Position of the Adjective in Spanish," *Hispania*, XXVI (May, 1943), 191-92.

Lists examples of the peculiarities of the position of the English adverb with reference to its verb and of the Spanish adjective with reference to its noun.

202. GIESECKE, G. E., LARSEN, R. P., and WITTENBORN, J. R. "Factors Contributing to Achievement in the Study of Elementary German," *Modern Language Journal*, XXVII (April, 1943), 254-62.

Interprets results of an investigation to determine factors responsible in part for differences in student achievement when intelligence scores are held constant. Offers suggestions for improving the study habits of foreign-language students.

203. HUEBENER, THEODORE. "An Air Vocabulary of 100 Words," *Modern Language Journal*, XXVII (May, 1943), 353-55.

Gives English, French, and German aerial vocabularies which include the names of airplanes, the names of types and parts of the plane, and terms used in air defense and aerial warfare.

204. KETTELKAMP, GILBERT C. "The Problem of Selecting a Foreign Language," *Modern Language Journal*, XXVII (October, 1943), 382-85.

Provides answers for teachers who are helping students plan programs of study where the selection of a foreign language is involved.

205. MILLIGAN, E. E., and BOTCKE, K. G. "Frequency of Error in American Students' Pronunciation of French," *Modern Language Journal*, XXVII (January, 1943), 55-61.

Points out common pronunciation difficulties based on a special test given by the French Department of the University of Wisconsin.

206. MOORE, ANNE Z. "Extensive Reading versus Intensive Reading in the Study of Modern Foreign Languages," *Modern Language Journal*, XXVII (January, 1943), 3-12.

Reports an experiment designed to measure reading skill and vocabulary growth.

207. NEWMARK, MAXIM. "A Project in 'Commando' German," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXV (February, 1943), 55-57.

Describes an unusual project for high-school German classes, which will be of great value to those students soon to be in the armed services.

208. RICE, WINTHROP H. "Some Reflections on the Use of Grammatical Terms," *Modern Language Journal*, XXVII (October, 1943), 400-402.

Recommends that grammatical terms be used in high-school foreign-language classes and that such terms be properly defined to be meaningful.

209. ROWE, CHARLES G. "A Plea for Poetry in the Intermediate French Class," *French Review*, XVI (January, 1943), 234-38.

Discusses the presentation and the value of French verse.

210. SKILES, JONAH W. D. "The Teaching of the Reading of Latin in the Latin Word-Order," *Classical Journal*, XXXIX (November, 1943), 88-103.

Emphasizes the need for teaching the reading of Latin as Latin and describes suitable recitation activities.

211. SPAHN, R. J. "Helping Freshmen Plan Their Programs," *Modern Language Journal*, XXVII (February, 1943), 112-15.

Contains illustrative pre-registration talk to high-school Freshmen, showing the interrelationship of ancient and modern languages.

212. STEVENS, L. C. "Textbook Vocabularies and Deceptive Cognates in Spanish," *Modern Language Journal*, XXVII (February, 1943), 116-18.

Contains supplementary list of English and Spanish equivalents in an effort to clarify deceptive cognates.

213. UNGRÍA, ENRIQUE. "Some Ideas on the Teaching of Commercial Spanish," *Hispania*, XXVI (February, 1943), 51-58.

Presents a course of study for business Spanish.

214. WALKER, CHARLES RUMFORD. "Language Teaching Goes to War," *School and Society*, LVII (April 3, 1943), 369-73.

Invites thought on post-war teaching of foreign languages.

Educational Writings

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REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

THE FUNCTION OF THE SCHOOLS IN THE SOCIAL ORDER.—The present wartime emergency in the field of education has brought into sharp focus the whole question of the part which schools shall play in a democratic society. Three factors contribute to this situation. In the first place, there is a growing recognition that the social order has undergone great changes within the past half-century, and there is much confusion as to what will constitute the good life in the future. In the second place, there is no agreement among educators about what should constitute a desirable educational system. Finally, the stress placed on the school by the war has led to the development of more immediate problems, which have prevented the giving of attention to such questions as those just indicated.

While Berkson's book¹ does not provide a solution to the problems of these three categories (such, indeed, is not its purpose), nevertheless it performs a service in describing the issues involved and in suggesting future courses of action. The discussion will appeal more to students of education than to laymen, but even for the latter there is much in the volume which will be conducive to clearer thinking.

The book is divided into three parts: "Education and the Changing Liberal Philosophy," "Progressive Education in Transition," and "School and Society in an Age of Reconstruction." In each of these divisions the author treats the topic from the standpoint both of the historical develop-

ment and of the present situation. In each, conflicting issues are described and criticized. The logic of the organization stands out clearly, and relationships among the three parts are easily followed.

Part I considers the development of liberalism from its earlier manifestations to the present time. While the point of departure observed in the first chapter concerns the dispute between "essentialists" and "progressives," the author makes a natural transition from this topic to a discussion of the changes in liberal thought. In the author's own words: "Part I is devoted to a statement on the changing pattern of liberal thought and the emerging idea of a planned democratic society" (p. viii).

Part II gives major emphasis to the topic of progressive education. This discussion is initiated with a consideration of the European background. The development of the movement in the United States is further traced, and the section is concluded with mention of the Progressive Education Association and a detailed description of its enunciated principles.

The remaining and largest part of this division of the book is given over to the issues involved in the stand taken by progressives. First, consideration is given to the end products of progressive principles—the schools that progressives organize and the methods employed in these schools. The author then discusses at length the educational ideas of John Dewey. While acknowledging the lack of identity between Dewey's educational conceptions and those of progressive education, Berkson points out that Dewey's "philosophy and pedagogy provide a systematic theoretical foundation for the newer educational practices" (p. 155).

¹ I. B. Berkson, *Education Faces the Future: An Appraisal of Contemporary Movements in Education*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1943. Pp. xii+346. \$3.50.

Part III, which deals with the relations between school and society in an age of change, is the logical outgrowth of Parts I and II. The discussion first takes up the growth of the underlying purposes in American public schools. Here the author establishes perspective and helps the reader to a better understanding of the present through a recognition of the continuity involved in the various antecedents of our current educational thinking. This discussion reaches the conclusion:

American education is distinctly a product of liberalism and clearly marked by the national character. The outstanding feature is a great conviction about the possibilities of education as a means of advancing the welfare of the individual and securing the social good [p. 241].

The discussion then contrasts the theories of education which emphasize, on the one hand, the part that schools can play in social reconstruction and, on the other, the role of schools as transmitters of the social heritage. Here, again, the reader is presented with a concise account, not only of the theories, but of the social background of thought from which each theory springs. The description is unprejudiced in the sense that each theory is given a fair treatment, and thus the reader receives further aid in clarifying his own thinking along these lines. However, it is probably true that the reader who proceeds through this part of the book with predetermined views obstinately held will find much with which he disagrees.

The last part of this division falls naturally into two parts. The first part concerns itself with the question of the adjustive functions of education in the socially changing world. In a sense, it departs from the plan of contrasting various philosophies, as was done in the previous chapters, and adopts a synthesizing procedure. It furthermore prepares the way for the last chapter, in which the author "aims to utilize generally accepted objectives of education and to carry forward the historical purposes of the American public elementary and high schools" in

outlining and summarizing "principles and ideas . . . intended as a response to new social forces" (p. 300).

The outline and summary are presented under five headings: "A Triune Definition of the General Purpose of Education," "The Nature and Limits of the Function of the School," "Valid Objectives of School Education," "Basic Social Objectives of the School," and "Essentials of Idealism." The material contained under each of these headings rounds out the discussion by suggesting logical conclusions to be reached in each of the various lines of thought developed in the preceding parts of the book.

Taken as a whole, this contribution to the field of educational literature will be valuable for the student who finds himself a bit bewildered by the many educational theories which have been advanced. If this volume did no more than set in order the many schools of educational thought, the resulting orderliness would be a welcome substitute for the existing chaos.

While not a book for the educational novice nor the uninterested layman, the treatise is definitely worth while to those who have thought enough about educational problems to become conversant with them but have not pursued the study so far as to become fixed and unyielding in their viewpoints.

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INTELLIGENCE AND ITS TESTING.—A person's concept of the nature of intelligence and his interpretation of the results of mental measurement are intimately related to his theory of education. A contribution to the classification of thinking about the nature of education has been made by Stoddard¹ in a book which "brings into a focus

¹ George D. Stoddard, *The Meaning of Intelligence*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1943. Pp. x+504. \$4.00.

various research findings on the broad question of intelligence" and "attempts to relate technical issues to certain problems in modern life" (p. vii). While the book will appeal especially to educational psychologists, it deals with matters that are important for both school administrators and teachers.

Dr. Stoddard has organized his book into five major subdivisions. The first of these consists in a thorough treatment of the nature of intelligence and its physiological basis. Not content with a simple, conventional definition of intelligence, the author discusses in some detail seven attributes which he considers essential to any concept of intelligence. This part of the book provides an analysis much needed by those teachers who are using intelligence tests without ever raising the question of just what is the nature of the thing that they are measuring.

Part II deals with the development of mental testing, the early and revised forms of the Binet-Simon tests, point scales, and factor theories. While most of the material in this section is informational in character, there are some parts where one encounters foretastes of major controversial issues which receive much more detailed treatment in later sections of the book.

Part III is a discussion of mental growth. The foundation for this part of the book has been laid earlier in the author's chapter on "The Physiological Basis." His contention that "while *maturation* is a legitimate concept, it differs only in degree from the abstract learning which is deemed *intelligent*" (p. 72) seems to the reviewer not to cover the case fully but rather to confuse one's thinking on both maturation and learning. The statement that "the lines of *maturation* are comparatively well laid down, while *learning* has great scope and flexibility" (p. 73), leads to a much more productive line of thinking. It leads to the very significant implication that "in American education we have yet to learn to sacrifice large amounts of casual information in order to generate thinking, planning, and producing at high levels" (p.

74). The treatment of mental growth covers the conventional subject matter and is replete with tables and graphs from a wide range of research.

Part IV of the book deals with the highly controversial issue of heredity and environment. The issues dealt with here have already been so widely discussed, particularly the Iowa data which Stoddard quotes and attempts to explain, that there is little hope of agreement among readers in respect to this part of the book. While the reviewer is unable to agree with the main position taken by the author, he must agree that the issue is one which is of importance to the school and that school people should be aware of the nature of the controversy and the factual data on which it rests.

Part V, entitled "Intelligence and Society," deals entirely with the educational and social implications of the earlier sections. This discussion is exceptionally meaty and stimulating and is worth serious study by every educator. The following is but a sample of many significant statements in this section of the book.

When children are regarded fundamentally as individual learners, conforming to unique patterns of ability, motivation, and experience, there is then a statistical phenomenon of overlap that permits the discovery and organization of large common areas of curricular materials and classroom procedures. This overlap will be a function of group similarity in physique, mental ability, and social interest. There is a further restriction upon heterogeneity in the sense that children, in developing abstract abilities and achievements, tend to follow similar intellectual pathways. A sound psychology of mathematics, of reading, of general science will parallel, in broad outline, not only the systematic demands of the subject, but the climbing intellectual curiosity of the child. . . .

Every child, whether in a small group or a large classroom, must be expected to carry on a vast amount of self-teaching, self-correction, and self-adjustment. There is an inner check on efficiency that is, in essence, distinctly ethical. No child should be allowed to shortchange himself intellectually—to cheat at solitaire, whether it be

played with cards, words, digits, or data. Within the limits of his knowledge and his ability to apply appropriate validation, the child is his own inspector general; he should never turn over to teacher, parent, or companion the smallest fragment of work that he knows to be wrong. He should get the habit of assuming full responsibility, let us say for a problem in arithmetic, composition, or science, within the limits of his power, leaving for the teacher only those duties that transcend his own. This crucial lesson, if learned early by every child, can be tremendously helpful to the teacher, supervisor, and curriculum maker. In the long run it will prove to be good training and good mental hygiene for the child himself [pp. 396-97].

Any discussion of the meaning of intelligence is bound to run afoul of differences in basic points of view. Readers of Stoddard's book are likely to overemphasize the treatment of the nature-nurture controversy. However, the book is not designed as a defense of one position on this issue but is rather a clarifying overview of the entire subject of intelligence and its measurement. It is one of the important books of the year.

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EVALUATING AN EXPERIMENTAL SCHOOL.

—The program of the New School, a unit within the Evanston Township High School of Evanston, Illinois, has been the focus of considerable attention since its initiation in 1937. Three officers of this school have now published certain conclusions about secondary education, based upon and illustrated by their experience in the New School. They deny that their book¹ is an official report; it represents the thinking which ought to grow out of an educational experiment rather than a record of what was done.

What was done was not unusual during

the past decade. The New School established a core program for one group of pupils within the Evanston Township High School. The core program comprised one period of English and one period of social studies (with overlapping content), the daily home-room period, a few units similar to those of general-language courses, and a period on alternate days in an art studio. The rest of the school day was spent in regular classes, not connected with the core. While pupils were free, within reasonable limits, to study anything whatever in the core, the basic units of study were nearly all centered in the social studies:

In examining the subject-matter emphasis that New School students have made repeatedly in choosing their studies, we find that all except one have to do with American life, and even that one [a unit on psychology] . . . bears on the democratic way of life [p. 78].

The authors conclude that these choices indicate that "certain understandings of our national development . . . are clearly needed and wanted by students" (p. 78). A wider basis of observation suggests that these choices reflected the interests and convictions of the teachers. Whenever social-studies teachers are dominant in a core group, we find such choices. When science teachers are in charge, units on health, heredity, reproduction, and the like are chosen. When English teachers take the lead, we find units on the development of language, on our literary heritage, and on recreation. In all cases both teachers and pupils may be sincerely convinced that pupils have chosen the subjects of study with complete freedom to select anything under the sun. It is fortunate that the choice always falls on a topic in which the teacher is interested and informed.

This cynical observation does not deny the value of teacher-pupil planning, which was the storm center of the New School program. It only suggests the possibility that strong teachers of more varied backgrounds, interests, and sensitivities to problems might have been utilized. For example, when Arndt

¹ Charles M. MacConnell, Ernest O. Melby, and Christian O. Arndt, *New Schools for a New Culture: Experimental Applications for Tomorrow*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1943. Pp. xii + 230. \$2.50.

entered the program, pupils began to plan units on language and on foreign cultures, which proved to be extremely interesting and valuable. Parenthetically, a recent statement by Mark Van Doren is interesting here:

Most progressive education is libeled when it is accused of refusing to lead—to perform, that is, “the duty of the adult to the freedom of the youth.” When it does so refuse, there seems to be no reason why it should be known as education at all [*Liberal Education*, p. 93. New York: Books, Inc., Distributed by Henry Holt & Co., 1943].

When the New School was established, the general understanding was that it would experiment with the possibilities of “a school within a school”—of breaking up a huge high school into manageable units. If this was one of the original purposes, it seems to have dropped out of sight in the furor aroused by the more basic issue of teacher-pupil planning. The present volume says nothing about this feature of the New School, but one may infer that its success was not complete. The New School managed to survive and seems to have profited by its autonomy and flexibility in administration. But no more separate units were established, and one reads between the lines that the school could not stand another.

This outcome reflects no discredit on the individuals involved. Most of the public schools of the Eight-Year Study of the Progressive Education Association began by establishing a core program, similar to that of the New School, for one group of pupils. The experimental group soon acquired the “progressive” label, in spite of every effort to avoid it, while the rest of the school chafed under, or gloried in, the title of “traditional.” Conflict was inevitable; a house divided against itself cannot stand. Schools either went ahead, like Denver, to establish a core program throughout the system or abandoned the experiment, in fact if not in name. The politics of this situation would make an interesting study. The chief fault probably

lies in ordinary resistance to change, but the experimental groups, in concentrating on internal democracy, may have neglected the democratic problem of what the larger society of the school is to do about a seceding group, which often sees no resolution of the conflict except conversion to its own ideals.

The bare record of the accomplishments of the New School would hardly justify the present volume. Thirty such reports, many dealing with more fundamental curricular changes, may be bought from the same publisher in a single volume (*Thirty Schools Tell Their Story*. Adventure in American Education, Vol. V. New York: Harper & Bros., 1943). The method of teacher-pupil planning, which was at the heart of the New School program, is discussed more comprehensively by H. H. Giles (*Teacher-Pupil Planning*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1941).

Only 94 of the 224 pages of text in the present volume recount the experience of the New School. The other 130 pages represent the thinking stimulated by this experience in three thoughtful men who shared in its direction. Every staff which survives such an experiment knows that it has learned a great deal more about education than could be inferred from a factual account of what happened. In most cases these added insights are never written down. Here they stand as evidence that a historic fact is less important than the meaning which an honest and intelligent man can extract from it.

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SIGNIFICANT FACTORS IN COUNSELING YOUTH REGARDING VOCATIONS.—A study of vocational opportunities in relation to youth is one great phase of the high-school program which can be made to contribute definitely to the defense of the nation.

In order that the best possible adjustment may be realized, a careful study of pupil abilities and interests is necessary. To counsel the pupil in making his own vocational de-

cisions and in co-operating toward success in any vocational activity which he is considering as a career is the aim of a comprehensive, logical volume.¹ This book, containing authentic, factual information combined with detailed analysis, is useful, not only to young people, but to teachers and counselors as well.

Part I of the book considers the general education of the pupil and his ability to apply his knowledge in thinking and planning about ways of earning a living. Part II gives a classification of the various types of occupations, presenting essential information in a vocabulary understandable by high-school boys and girls. Part III deals with those problems that the pupil must eventually meet when he leaves school and enters some field of work. Part IV emphasizes standards of human values in the organization of occupational life.

The tone of the book is in keeping with the belief that the school revolves around the individual. All reading material is at the level of the adolescent, and the style is informal, clear, and conversational. The book abounds in simple questions, spoken directly to the pupil. Numerous well-chosen, easily understood illustrations present vividly the mechanics of everyday living in the world of work. Statistical records in various selected fields of work include studies of qualities that are considered necessary for success by the United States Employment Service. Each chapter gives a short review of the material considered, with references concerning the next steps to be discussed. At the end of each chapter are found questions, exercises, and extra activities bearing on those values pertinent to the pupil.

In order that high-school boys and girls may understand vocational life more completely, a textbook which provides adequate vocational guidance and shows the develop-

ment, organization, and social changes in a democratic society is a valuable contribution to the task of preparing youth for the American way of living in a wartime world and the post-war period. The authors have provided such a book in their orderly presentation of techniques in "self-study," "self-direction," and "job analysis." Due consideration is given to the social aims of vocational guidance and to the need for proper environmental conditions, so conducive to the success of the individual in any field of work. A changing, complex society requires versatility, and thus experimentation in a whole field of activity is desirable. Tryouts and early self-discovery are valuable aids toward the building of a sound educational foundation which will lead to vocational success and new experiences in occupational life. The qualities that are generally necessary to the achievement of success in work, in addition to good health, are given by the authors as "skill and technical knowledge" and "job wisdom."

This book has practical value in the classroom if the information which it contains is used in situations in which wholesome personal relations between pupils and teacher prevail. Genuine interest and sympathetic understanding on the part of the teacher are necessary factors in a vocational-guidance program. The need for, and the opportunity for, guidance by the teacher might have been more specifically emphasized in this book. If the information and the experiences of vocational guidance are to have the greatest influence on the life of every pupil, teachers and counselors need a clear understanding of the personnel point of view. Frequently a pupil's attitude toward his school work is greatly improved when he becomes aware of his vocational interests and aptitudes. He then begins to sense the need of a background for future vocational success.

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¹ John M. Brewer and Edward Landy, *Occupations Today*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1943. Pp. vi+376. \$1.64.

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